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# HISTORICAL OUTLINES

OF.

# ENGLISH ACCIDENCE

COMPRISING

TERS ON THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE LANGUAGE, AND ON WORD-FORMATION

BY THE LATE

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REVISED BY

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# London

MACMILLAN AND CO.

AND NEW YORK

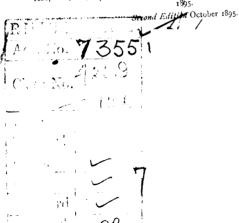
1895

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# RICHARD CLAY AND SONS, LIMITED, LONDON AND BUNGAY.

First Edition, February 1872.

Reprinted October 1872, 1873, 1875, 1876; January and November 1877, 1878, 1871, 1881, 1882, 1883, 1885, 1886, 1888, 1892, 1893; January and December 1894; April 1895.



#### **PREFACE**

In the year 1889 the late Dr. Morris did me the honour of inviting me to revise his "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," which, for twenty years, was the best introduction to the elements of English philology, but which required material correction in order to bring it into harmony with the results of the investigations of recent times. Dr. Morris was prevented from doing the revision himself, his time being wholly taken up by his school work, and what little leisure was left to him being devoted to his studies in Pâli; but I was to have the advantage of his immense knowledge and judicious advice. Unfortunately, that celebrated scholar died before I was able to put the revised "Accidence" into his hands, and I cannot too warmly express my thanks to Mr. Bradley, who, in time of need, kindly undertook to supervise my revision. I am

#### PREFACE

indebted to him for constant advice and criticism, and, in addition to making many suggestions, he carefully read the proofs and re-wrote part of those sections in which I had given a short account of the relation bet en English and the other Teutonic and Indo-European languages.

The main features in which the new edition differs from the original are the following:—

- sounds and letters has (so far as it could be done without absolutely rewriting the book) been remedied.
- (2) The treatment of English sounds and their history has been thoroughly remodelled in accordance with the results of modern investigations.
- (3) The statement of Grimm's Law has been corrected, and an account of Verner's Law added.
- (4) The theory of vowel-gradation has been fully explained, and, in consequence of this, the chapter on the strong verbs has had to be altered in many essential points.
- (5) The chapter on Word-formation has been entirely re-written.

The statements relating to the Early English dialects

have been left nearly untouched; the late Dr. Morris was a pioneer and master in this part of English philology, and the investigations of other scholars have, on the whole, confirmed the characteristics pointed out by the author of the "Accidence."

L. KELLNER

VIENNA, August, 1895.

# CONTRACTIONS

Abs. and Achith. = Absalom and Achitophel. Allit. = Alliterative Poems (ed. Morris). Areop. = Milton's Areopagitica (ed. Arber). Ayenbite = Ayenbite of Inwyt (ed. Morris).

B. and F. = Beaumont and Fletcher. Boeth = Boethius.

C. Tales = Canterbury Tales.

Compl. of L. Lyfe = Complaint of a Lover's Lyfe (attributed to Chaucer).

Confess. Amant. = Confessio Amantis (Gower).

Coriol. = Coriolanus.

Cosmog. = Cosmography (Earle).

Cymb. = Cymbeline.

Dan. = Danish.

E. E. Poems = Early English Poems (ed. Furnivall).

E. E. Spec. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).

F. Q. = Faerie Queene.

Gen. and Ex. = Story of Genesis and Exodus (ed. Morris).

Ger. = German.

Gest. Rom. = Gesta Romanorum (Early English Version).

Goth. = Gothic.

Gr. = Greek.

Icel. = Icelandic.

#### CONTRACTIONS

Lat. = Latin.

Laz. = Lazamon's Brut (ed. Madden).

Med. Lat. = Mediæval Latin.

Mel. = Anatomy of Melancholy (Burton).

Mid. H. G. = Middle High German.

O. E. = Old English.

O. E. Hom. = Old English Homilies (ed. Morris).

O. F. = Old French.

O. H. Ger. = Old High German.

O. N. = Old Norse.

Orm. = Ormulum (ed. White).

O. Sax. = Old Saxon.

P. L. = Paradise Lost.

P. of C. = Pricke of Conscience (ed. Morris).

P. of P. = Pastime of Pleasure.

Pilgrimage = Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode (ed. Aldis Wright).

Prov. E. = Provincial English.

Robt. of Gl. = Robert of Gloucester.

Sansk. = Sanskrit.

Shep. Cal. = Shepherd's Calendar.

Spec. E. E. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).

Swed. = Swedish.

Tr. and Cr. = Troilus and Cressida.

Trist. = Lay of Sir Tristram (ed. Scott).

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#### ERRATA.

Page 40, heading of Table V., for "s.s.z." read "ss,z."

- ,, 143, line 21, for "wishe, foxess" read "wishes, foxes."
- ,, 192, line 9, for "zohdur" read " zondur."
- ,, 273, last line, for "môtêdum" read "môstêdum."
- ,, 352, col. I, last word of 3rd section, for "hanas" read "hanan
- "augô, augins," &c.
- " 397, last line of first table, for "cower" read "cover."
- ,, 409, line 13, for "kepen" read "kessen."

# HISTORICAL OUTLINES

OF

# ENGLISH ACCIDENCE

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#### CHAPTER I

#### FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

- 1. Words are articulate sounds used to express perception and thought. The aggregate of these articulate sounds, accepted by and current among any community, we call speech or language.
- 2. The language of the same community often presents local varieties; to these varieties we give the name of dialects.
- 3. Grammar treats of the words of which language is composed, and of the laws by which it is governed.
  - 4. The science of Grammar is of two kinds:
- (a) Descriptive Grammar, which classifies, arranges, and describes words as separate parts of speech, and notes the changes they undergo under certain conditions.
- (b) Comparative Grammar, which is based on the study of words, goes beyond the limits of Descriptive

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Grammar; that is, beyond the mere statement of facts. analyses words, accounts for the changes they have ungone, and endeavours to trace them back to their ori, It thus deals with the growth of language.

Descriptive Grammar teaches us that the word *loveth*: verb, indicative mood, &c. Comparative Grammar inforus, (1) that the radical part of the verb is *lov* (or *lu* denoting desire (cp. Lat. *lubeo*); (2) that the suffix *-th* is the same origin as the *-t* in *lube-t*.

- 5. Comparative Grammar has shown us that language may be classified in two ways: (1) According to the pectiarities of their grammatical structure, or the mode denoting the relation of words to one another; (2) according to historical relationship.
- 6. The first mode of classification is called a morph logical one. It divides languages into three classes, viz (1) Monosyllabic or Isolating; (2) Agglutinative; (3) I flexional or Polysyllabic.

Some scholars maintain that these three classes represent the periods in the growth of language; that is to say, that the monosyllab type was the earliest form of language, and that the agglutinative type was developed from this, and by a further development gave rise to the inflexional type. But this theory is now strongly disputed.

(1) In languages of the monosyllabic type, roots at used as words, without any change of form.

In these languages there are no prefixes or suffixes, an no formally distinguished parts of speech.

The Chinese is the best example of a language of th isolating or monosyllabic class.

"Every word in Chinese is monosyllabic; and the sam word, without any change of form, may be used as a nour a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a particle. Thus a according to its position in a sentence, may mean great greatness, to grow, very much, very.

- "We cannot in Chinese (as in Latin) derive from ferrum, iron, a new substantive ferrarius, a man who works in iron, a blacksmith; ferraria, an iron mine, and again ferrariarius, a man who works in an iron mine; all this is possible only in an inflected language."—MAX MÜLLER.
- (2) In languages of the agglutinative class two unaltered roots are joined together to form words; in these compounds one root becomes subordinate to the other, and so loses its independence. Cf. man-kind, heir-loom, war-like, which are agglutinative compounds. The Finnish, Hungarian, Turkish, the Tamul, &c., are agglutinative anguages.

The Basque and American languages are agglutinative, vith this difference, that the roots which are joined together have been abbreviated, as in the Basque ilhun, "twilight," rom hill, dead + egun, day. In the Mexican language their compound terms are equivalent to phrases and sentences, tchichillacachocan, "the place where people weep because he water is red;" from alt, "water;" chichiltic, "red," lacatl, "man;" and chorea, "weep."

It has been proposed to call these languages polysynthetic rincorporating. It is remarkable that most of these languages show that the people who speak them are deficient the power of abstraction.

(3) In languages of the inflexional class, roots are modid by prefixes or suffixes. To this class Greek, Latin, erman, English, &c., as well as Hebrew, Arabic, &c., long.

The advocates of the theory that the three classes represent successtages of development are able to point to the undoubted fact that exional languages present features resembling those of the other two

Cp. Hungarian var-at-andot-ta-tok (= wait-and-will-e-you) = you will have been waited for.

classes, and that many prefixes and suffixes were once independent words, which have become mere inflexions through an intermediate process of agglutination. Take, for example, the following:—

He is *like God* = monosyllabic. He is *God-like* = agglutinative. He is *God-ly* = inflexional.

Here the syllable ly = like, originally a word, has dwindled down to a formative element or suffix.

But, on the other hand, many languages have developed from a highly inflexional type to one which is to a considerable extent agglutinative or monosyllabic. In some degree this is the case with English.

7. The classification of languages according to historical relationship is a *genealogical* one.

Historical relationship may be shown by comparing the grammar and vocabulary of any two or more languages; if their systems of grammatical inflexions bear a close resemblance to one another, and if there be a general agreement in the employment of those terms that are least likely to have been lost or displaced by borrowed terms (such as pronouns, numerals, words denoting near relationship, &c.), then it may be safely asserted that such languages are related to one another.

Historical relationship, then, rests upon (1) the similarity of grammatical structure; (2) the fundamental identity of roots.

8. Comparative Grammar teaches us that the English language is a member of a group of allied languages, to which the term **Teutonic** has been given.

By continental scholars the designation commonly employed is Germanic. This is in itself a more correct term than Teutonic, because Germani was the name which the Romans applied to all the peoples speaking languages of this class, while Teutones or Teutoni was merely the name of one of these peoples. But since in Modern English we apply the name German in a narrowed sense to the people who call themselves Deutsche and whom the French call Allemands, the use of the adjective Germanic in its proper wide sense

is somewhat inconvenient. The chief objection to it is that it has no corresponding substantive. Although there is no ambiguity in saying that the English language is "Germanic," we could not speak of the English and the Scandinavians as "Germans." Hence it is that scholars in this country usually prefer the term Teutonic. Mediaeval Latin writers who affected classicality employed Teutonicus as a more elegant synonym for Theotiscus, the Latinized form of theotisc, theodisc, "belonging to (our own) people" (from the word appearing in Old High German as diot, in Old English as peod, people), modern forms of which are Deutsch (the name by which the Germans call their own language) and Dutch.

The name German was probably given to the Teutons by some continental Keltic tribes. By some philologists the word German is said to mean howlers, shrickers (from Keltic gairm-a, to cry out), on

account of their warlike shouts.

- 9. The **Teutonic** dialects may be arranged in the following groups or subdivisions:—
- (t) The West-Teutonic, including (a) Low German, (b) High German; (2) the East-Teutonic, including only Gothic; (3) the North-Teutonic or Scandinavian.<sup>1</sup>

The English language is a Low German dialect, and is closely allied to the dialects still spoken on the northern shores and lowlands of Germany. This relationship is easily accounted for by the emigration of the Angles, Saxons, and other Low German tribes from the lowlands of Germany situated between the Rhine and Baltic coasts.

- I. To the Low German division belong the following languages:—
  - (1) Frisian. (a) Old Frisian as preserved in documents of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; (b) Modern Frisian, still spoken in Friesland, along the coasts and islands of the North Sea between the Rhine and the Ems.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Many scholars class Gothic and Scandinavian together as East-Teutonic.

The Frisian is more closely allied to English than the rest of the Low German languages. The chief features common to Old Frisian and Old English are:—

- (1) Teutonic a becomes a (in Frisian written e) in certain positions, as in O.E. fat, Frisian fat (vat).
- (2) Teutonic a becomes o before nasals, as in mon (man).
- (3) Teutonic k and g are fronted (become palatal sounds) before front vowels (e, i) as in  $\acute{c}(acc)$  (cheek), geldan (yield).
  - (2) **Dutch.** (a) Old and Middle Dutch (as seen in documents from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century); (b) Modern Dutch, spoken in Holland.
  - (3) Flemish. (a) Early Flemish, the language of the Court of Flanders and Brabant in the sixteenth century; (b) Modern Flemish.
  - (4) Old Saxon, or the Saxon of the Continent, spoken between the Rhine and Elbe, which had its origin in the districts of Munster, Essen, and Cleves.

There is a specimen of this dialect in a poetical version of the Gospels (of the ninth century), entitled the *Hêliand* (O.E. *Hêlend*, German *Heiland*) = the *Healer* or Saviour.

The Old Saxon is very closely related to English, and retains many Teutonic inflexions that have disappeared in other Low German dialects. It is a peculiarity of old Frisian, Old English, and Old Saxon to drop m and n before the voiceless spirants f, th, s, and, at the same time, to lengthen the preceding vowel:—fif (five), Gothic fimf;  $m\bar{u}th$  (mouth), German mund;  $\bar{u}s$  (us), German uns. A

great many words and phrases are peculiar to Old English poetry and to the Old Saxon poem *Hèliand*.

- (5) English. (a) Old English; (b) Middle English; (c) Modern English, including Standard English, Provincial English, and Lowland Scotch.
- II. To the High German division belongs Modern German, the literary dialect of Germany, properly the speech of the south-east of Germany, Bavaria, Austria, and some adjacent districts.

It is divided into three stages—

- (a) Old High German, comprising a number of dialects (the Thuringian, Franconian, Swabian, Alsatian, Swiss, and Bavarian), spoken in Upper or South Germany from the beginning of the eighth to the middle of the eleventh century.
- (b) Middle High German, the literary language from the beginning of the twelfth to the end of the fifteenth century.
- (c) Modern High German, from the end of the fifteenth century to the present time.

Luther ennobled the dialect he used in his beautiful translation of the Bible, and made the High German the literary language of all German-speaking people. The Low German dialects of the Continent are yielding to its influence.

III. The **Gothic**, the oldest and most primitive of the Teutonic dialects of which literary remains are known, was spoken by the Eastern and Western Goths, who originally lived near the Vistula, but migrated about the third century of the Christian era to the neighbourhood of the Danube and the Black Sea, and afterwards overran all the countries of Southern Europe.

The oldest record of this dialect is found in the translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulphilas (born 311, died 381), the greater part of which has perished, though we still possess considerable portions of the Gospels and St. Paul's Epistles, some pieces of the Old Testament, and a small portion of a Commentary.

IV. To the **Scandinavian** division belong the following tongues:—(1) Icelandic; (2) Norwegian; (3) Swedish; (4) Danish.

Iceland was colonized by the Northmen, who established a Republic there, and were converted to Christianity A.D. 1000.

10. If we compare English and Modern German we find them very clearly distinguished from each other by regular phonetic changes: thus a d in English corresponds to a t in German, as dance and tanz; day and tag; deep and tief; drink and trink. A t in English agrees with an ss or z in German, as is shown by foot and fuss; tin and zinn; to and zu; two and zwei; water and wasser. A German d is equivalent to our th, as die and the; dein and thine; bad and bath, &c.

Not only English, but all the remaining members of the Teutonic family, are thus distinguished from High German.

- 11. The Scandinavian dialects differ from the other members of the Teutonic family in the following particulars:—
- (1) The definite article follows its substantive, and coalesces with it.

In O. Norse inn=ille; in=illa; itt=illud: hence hani-nn, the cock;  $gi\ddot{o}f \cdot in$ , the gift;  $fat \cdot it$ , the vessel.

In Swedish and Danish en (mas. fem.) and et (neut.) = the.

Swed.--Konung-en, the king. | bord-et, the table. Dan.--Kong-en, ,, ,,

(2) The reflexive pronoun sik (O.N.), sig (Swed. and Dan.), Lat. se, = self, coalesces with verbs, and forms a reflexive suffix: as O.N. at falla = fall down, and sik = self, produce the reflexive (or middle) verb at fallask.

The reflexive or middle voice thus formed came to be used in the later language as a passive; as O.N. at kalla, to call; at kallask (afterwards kallaz, kallast), to be called.

In English we have borrowed at least two of these reflexive verbs; namely, bu-sk, from the Icel. bu-a, to prepare, make ready, direct one's course, and ba-sk (=  $ba\delta a\text{-}sk$ ) from Icel.  $ba\delta a$ , to warm, which is identical with Eng. bathe.

12. Comparative Philology has also proved to us that English belongs to a group of dialects that form a subdivision of a great family of related languages, to which the term Indo-European has been applied.

When we recollect that the Indo-European family comprehends nearly all the languages of Europe, and all those Indian dialects that have sprung from the old Hindu language (Sanskrit), the term is by no means an inappropriate one. An older designation, which is still very widely used, is *Indo-Germanic*; and many scholars prefer to use the term *Aryan*. The word Aryan is a Sanskrit word, meaning *honourable*, *noble*. It was the name by which the old Hindus and Persians, who at a very early period had attained a high degree of culture and civilization, used to call themselves in contradistinction to the uncivilized races or non-Aryans of India whom they conquered.

As a substitute for Indo-European, the word Aryan has the great advantage of brevity. On the other hand, it is open to the objection that none of the European peoples are known to have applied it to themselves, and that many philologists use it in a narrower and historically more correct sense, to denote the languages belonging to the Asiatic branch of the family. In this volume, however, it will be used in its wider meaning.

There are two great divisions of the Indo-European family: A. European; B. Asiatic.

The European division chiefly differs from the Asiatic in the following points:—

- (1) In Sanskrit and Old Persian e and o are represented by a, the European languages have kept the old vowels o, e, a. Sanskrit  $p\acute{a}ncan$  (five), Avesta panca, Greek  $\pi\acute{e}\nu \tau \epsilon$ , Gothic fimf; Sanskrit  $bh\acute{a}r\bar{a}mi$  (I bear), Greek  $\phi$   $\epsilon$   $\rho$   $\omega$ , Gothic  $ba\acute{i}ra$  (read bera): Sanskrit  $\acute{a}sti$  (is), Greek  $\acute{\epsilon}$   $\sigma$   $\tau$   $\iota$ , Gothic ist; Sanskrit  $a\acute{s}t\acute{a}u$ , Latin octo; Sanskrit  $dad\acute{a}rea$ , Greek  $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\delta\rho\rho\kappa a$ .
- (2) In the Asiatic division we find r in many words, where the European languages exhibit l; Sanskrit  $r\bar{e}cdya-ti$  (leaves, abandons), Greek  $\lambda \in i\pi \epsilon(\tau)\iota$ ; Sanskrit  $r\bar{o}k\dot{a}$  (light), Latin lux, Gothic liuha.
- (3) The Asiatic group is wanting in many roots which are common to all the European languages:—ar (to plough), me (to mow), ml (to grind), se (to sow).

#### A. EUROPEAN DIVISION.

I. The **Teutonic Languages**, which will be dealt with in the following chapters.

# II. The Keltic Languages.

- (i) Britannic Class.—(1) Welsh; (2) Cornish (died out about the beginning of the nineteenth century);
   (3) Bas-Breton (or Armorican).
- (ii) Gadhelic Class.—(1) Irish; (2) Gaelic, spoken in the Highlands of Scotland; (3) Manx (the dialect spoken in the Isle of Man).

## III. The Italic Languages.

- (i) Old Italian dialects, as the Latin, the Oscan (of South Italy), the Umbrian (of N.E. Italy), the Sabine.
- (ii) The Romanic dialects, which have sprung from the Latin. (1) Italian; (2) French; (3) Provençal;
  (4) Spanish; (5) Portuguese; (6) Rhæto-Romanic (or Roumansch), spoken in Southern Switzerland; (7) Wallachian, spoken in the northern provinces of Turkey (Wallachia and Moldavia).
- The Wallachian is divided by the Danube into two dialects, the Northern and the Southern. It owes its origin chiefly to the Roman colonies sent into Dacia by Trajan.

## IV. The Hellenic Languages.

- (1) Ancient Greek (comprising the Attic, Ionic, Doric, and Æolic dialects).
- (2) Modern Greek (comprising several dialects).

The Albanian dialect is a representative of the language spoken by the Illyrians, who probably occupied the Greek peninsula before the Hellenic tribes. All that can be positively stated about it is that it belongs to the Indo-European family, and is closely related to Greek. The Albanians inhabit part of the ancient Epirus and Illyricum. They call themselves Skipetars or mountaineers, and the Turks call them Arnauts (= Arbanites).

## V. The Slavonic Languages.

- (i) South-east Slavonic.
  - (1) Old Bulgarian (or Old Church Slavic) of the ninth century.
  - (2) Russian; (a) Russian proper; (b) Little Russian or Ruthenian.
  - (3) Illyric, comprising, (a) Servian; (b) Kroatian; (c) Slovenian (of Carinthia and Styria).
- (ii) Western Branch.
  - (4) Polish.
  - (5) Bohemian.
  - (6) Slovakian.
  - (7) Upper and Lower Sorbian (Lusatian dialects)
  - (8) Polabian (on the Elbe).

### VI. The Lettic Languages.

- (1) Old Prussian (the original language of N.E. Prussia).
- (2) Lettish or Livonian (spoken in Kurland and Livonia).
- (3) Lithuanian (spoken in Eastern Prussia, and in the Russian provinces of Kowno and Wilna.

The Turkish, Hungarian, Basque, Lappish, Finnish, and Esthonian do not belong to the Indo-European family.

#### B. ASIATIC DIVISION.

# VII. The Indian Languages.

- (1) Sanskrit (dead).
- (2) Prakrit (Indian dialects, preserved in Sanskrit dramas).
- (3) Pali (the sacred language of the Buddhists).
- (4) Modern Indian dialects descended from Sanskrit, as Hindī, Hindustanī, Bengalī, Mahrattī.
- (5) Gypsy dialect. (The Gypsies are of Indian origin.)

# VIII. The Iranian Languages.

- (1) Zend (or Zand), more correctly Avestic, the language of the Zoroastrians, preserved in the Zend-Avesta, or sacred writings of the old Persians, parts of which are at least a thousand years old.
- (2) The language of the cuneiform inscriptions of Darius and Xerxes and their successors (of the Achamenid dynasty), the oldest of them being about five centuries before Christ.
- (3) Pehlevi or Huzvaresh, the language of the Sassanian dynasty (A.D. 226—651).
- (4) Parsi or Pazend, spoken in a more eastern locality than the Pehlevi, about the time of the Mohammedan conquest.
- (5) Modern Persian, which differs but little from the Parsi, arose after the Mohammedan conquest. Its first great national work, *Shah-Nameh*, was written by Firdusi (died 1020).

The Armenian, Ossetic (spoken in the Caucasus), Kurdish (spoken by the mountaineers of the border land between Persia, Turkey, and Russia), Afghan (or Pushto), the language of Bokhara, are all clearly related to Sanskrit and Persian, but it has not yet been decided to which group they severally belong.

13. All the Indo-European languages are descended from one common stock; that is to say, all the Indo-European languages are dialects of an old and primitive tongue which no longer exists.

The people who spoke this tongue must have lived together as one great community more than three thousand years ago. The home of the people who spoke the common Indo-European language is uncertain. Until recently it was considered that the north-eastern part of the Iranian table-land, near the Hindu-Kush mountains, was the original abode of this primitive people. Of late yéars many scholars have brought arguments in favour of the north or east of Europe. By the aid of Comparative Philology we find that it is possible to classify and arrange the *phonetic differences* of the various Indo-European languages, and to reduce them to certain rules, so that we are enabled to determine what sound in one language corresponds to that of another.<sup>1</sup>

Philological research has found "that the primitive tribe which spoke the mother-tongue of the Indo-European family was not nomadic alone, but had settled habitations, even towns and fortified places, and addicted itself in part to the rearing of cattle, in part to the cultivation of the earth. It possessed our chief domestic animals—the horse, the ox, the sheep, the goat, and the swine, besides the dog; the bear and the wolf were foes that ravaged its flocks; the mouse and fly were already its domestic pests.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rask first discovered, and Grimm afterwards worked out, the law which governs the permutation of consonants; hence it is always known as Grimm's Law.

"The region it inhabited was a varied one, not bordering upon the ocean. The season whose name has been most persistent is the winter. Barley, and perhaps also wheat, was raised for food, and converted into meal. Mead was prepared from honey, as a cheering and inebriating drink. The use of certain metals was known; whether iron was one of these admits of question. The art of weaving was practised: wool and hemp, and possibly flax, being the materials employed. Of other branches of domestic industry little that is definite can be said; but those already mentioned imply a variety of others, as co-ordinate or auxiliary to them. The weapons of offence and defence were those which are usual among primitive peoples—the sword, spear, bow, and shield. Boats were manufactured, and moved by oars. Of extended and elaborate political organization no traces are discoverable; the people was doubtless a congeries of petty tribes, under chiefs and leaders rather than kings, and with institutions of a patriarchal cast, among which the reduction to servitude of prisoners taken in war appears not to have been wanting.

"The structure and relations of the family are more clearly seen; names of its members, even to the second and third degrees of consanguinity and affinity, were already fixed, and were significant of affectionate regard and trustful interdependence. That woman was looked down upon as a being in capacity and dignity inferior to man we find no indication whatever.

"The art of numeration was learned, at least up to a hundred; there is no general Indo-European word for 'thousand.' Some of the stars were noticed and named. The moon was the chief measurer of time.

"The religion was polytheistic, a worship of the personified powers of nature. Its rites, whatever they were, were practised without the aid of a priesthood."—WHITNEY.

- I
- 14. Next to the Indo-European the most important family of languages is the **Semitic**, sometimes called the *Syro-Arabian* family, of which the chief divisions are as follows:—
  - (a) The Northern or Aramaic, comprehending
    (1) The Syriac (ancient and modern); (2)
    the dialect commonly miscalled Chaldee,
    found in parts of the Bible and the
    Targum.
  - (b) The Assyrian and Babylonian.
  - (c) The Central or Canaanitic, including (1) Hebrew, Phanician, Samaritan, and Carthaginian or Punic.
  - (d) The Southern or Arabic, comprehending, (1)
    Arabic and Maltese; (2) Himyaritic (once spoken in the S.W. of the peninsula of Arabia), and the Amharic and other Abyssinian dialects; (3) the Ethiopic or Geëz (the ancient language of Abyssinia).

It has not yet been shown that the Semitic languages, although inflexional, are historically connected with the Indo-European family.

It has not been decided whether the *Hamitic* family containing, (1) the ancient Egyptian and Coptic; (2) Galla; (3) Berber; (4) Hottentot, &c., have any historical connection with the *Semitic*.

15. The other languages of the world fall into various groups.

- A.—The Ural-Altaic or Finno-Tatar, comprehending, (1) Hungarian; (2) Finnish and Lappish; (3) the Samoyed dialects; (4) Turkish and its dialects; (5) Mongolian dialects; (6) Tungusian dialects (as Manchu).
- B. —I. The Dravidian or Tamulic (including Tamul, Telegu, Malabar, Canaries).
  II. The languages of N.E. Asia (including the dialects of Corea, the Kuriles, Kamchatka, &c.).
  III. Japanese, and dialect of Loo-Choo.
  IV. Malay-Polynesian or Oceanic languages (comprehending the dialects of Malacca, Java, Sumatra, Melanesia, &c.).
  V. The Caucasian dialects (Georgian, &c.).
- C .- South African dialects.
- A, B, and C are agglutinative in their structure, but have no historical connection with each other.
  - D.—I. Chinese. II. The language of Farther India (the Siamese, Burmese, Annamese, Cambodian, &c.). III. Thibetan.

These are monosyllabic or isolating in structure.

E.—I. Basque. II. The aboriginal languages of North and South America—all polysynthetic in structure.

#### CHAPTER II

#### GENERAL PHONETICS

16. Speech-Sounds are produced by the organs of speech, i.e. a kind of wind-instrument in which the vibratory apparatus is supplied by the vocal chords (ligaments that are stretched across the wind-pipe), while the outer tube, or tubes, through which the waves of sound pass, are furnished by the different configurations of the mouth.

The vocal chords have four different positions:

- (1) They may be kept apart so as to let the breath expelled from the lungs pass through without producing any sound; this is the position of breathing.
- (2) The chords may be brought together so as to vibrate; they produce voice.
- (3) The chords may be so far brought together that the passing breath expelled from the lungs causes a friction on the chords; this friction produces whisper.
- (4) The chords may be closed so as to allow no breath to pass.

#### Vowels.

17. If the mouth-passage is left so open as not to cause audible friction, and voiced breath is sent through, we have *vowels*. But as every alteration in the shape of the mouth

produces a different vowel, the quality of vowels depends partly on the position of the tongue, partly on that of the lips. We distinguish three horizontal positions, or degrees of retraction of the tongue: back, when the root of the tongue is drawn back, as in the a of father; front, when the fore part of the tongue is advanced, as in the e of men; mixed, when the tongue is left in its neutral position, intermediate between back and front as in the u of murmur.

According to the degree of height, we distinguish three vertical positions of the tongue: high, when the tongue is raised as close to the palate as is possible without making the vowel into a consonant, as in the i of fit; low when the tongue is farthest from the palate as in the a of father; mid, when it is in the middle between high and low, as in the e of hed.

Each of the vowels formed by the different combinations of retraction and height is either close or open, according to the degree of openness of the mouth-passage. Thus a in man is open, a in mane is close. If the lip-opening is narrowed while the tongue is in a certain position, the resulting vowel is said to be rounded, as the a in fall.

The combination of these four elements gives 36 primary vowels, of which, however, only some occur in Modern English, as shown in the following table 1:—

<sup>1</sup> Sweet, A Primer of Spoken English, p. 5.

		1						
		high-front	mid-front	low-front man		high-front	mid-front	low-front
	OPEN.	high-mixed	mid-mixed island	low-mixed ow: how	OPEN-ROUNDED.	high-mixed	mid-mixed follow	low-mixed .
		high-back	mid-back fæther	low-back		high-back put	mid-back no	low-back not
		high-front	mid-front	low-front		high-front	mid-front	low-front
	CLOSE.	high-mixed	mid-mixed	low-mixed	CLOSE-ROUNDED.	high-mixed	mid-mixed	low-mixed
-		high-back	mid-back come	low-back		high-back	mid-back	low-back saw

Taking moreover into consideration that vowels are distinguished by quantity, as *long* and *short*, and the long ones again as *monophthongs*, that is simple vowels, and *diphthongs*, that is, two vowels uttered with one impulse of stress, we arrive at the following vowels in Modern English:—

# I. Short vowels:

Ordinary Spelling.		Phonetic Symbol.	Instances.
o, u, ou		v .	brother, mother, son; blush, dust, such; enough, touch, tough.
a, e, i, o, ou, u in unaccented syllables		Э	again, attend, a man, at home; China, breakfast, agreeable; September, children; horrible, possible; ablige, occasion; emperor, orator; colour, vapour; fortune, pleasure.
1, y, e, 0 u, ui	}	i	bill, if, sin; fifty; England; women; busy; build.
a, e, u, ai ay, ea, ei ic, eo	}	e	many, any; bed, red; bury; against; said; says; breast, health; heifer; friend; leopard, jeopardy.
		æ	man, have, shall.
oo, o, u, ou		u	hoof, rook; besom, welf, woman; bull, full, pull; could, should, would.
a, o (ou), (ow)		o	swan, was; borrow, hollow; hough; knowledge.

# II. Long vowels and diphthongs 1:

<sup>1</sup> The long vowels and diphthongs have not been separated in this table, because some differences exist in the pronunciation of educated Englishmen. The diphthongs represented by ai, au, oi, are universal; but many persons use simple long vowels, or long vowels followed by a slight 'glide,' in place of the diphthongs here denoted by ei, oi. The pronunciation here indicated is that of London, and some minor distinctions of vowel-quality are neglected; more precise information must be sought in works on phonetics.

ŧ	Ordinary Spelling.	*	Phonetic Symbol.	Instances.
a,	ea, au		aa	far, star; heart, hearken; laugh, draught.
e, o,	ea, i u	}	эə	fern, herd; earn, learn; birth, dirt; word, worse; burst, curse.
	au, aw, oa, ou (ow)	}	э	all, warm; baulk, slaughter; brawn, lawn; broth, frost; broad, board; ought, thought; (towards).
	ai, ay, ea, ey (ao, au)	}	ei	blade, take; main, rain; clay, hay; break, steak; eight, neigh; they, wey; gaol; gauge.
1	ai, e, ea, ei		eə .	bare, pare; fair, pair; there, where; bear, pear; heir, their.
	, ea, e, ei, ie y, ey, eo)	}	ij	bee, flee; east, tea; be, even; fiend, priest; conceit, seize; key; quay; people.
	γ, ci, <b>cy</b> , ay)	}	ai	bide, tide; lye, rye; either, height; eye; aisle; aye.
v n	oa, ou, (ew)	}	ou	$g_{\theta}$ , $s_{\theta}$ ; foal, oath; dough, shoulder; bow, $glow$ ; $sew$ .
	, o, ew, , u, ui	}	uw	booth, too; do, who; blew, brew; ousel, you; ruth, truth; bruise, cruise.
ou	, ow		au	foul, mouth; cow, sow.
oi,	oy		oi	boil, coil ; loyal, royal.

### CONSONANTS.

18. Consonants are produced when the breath expelled from the lungs meets with an obstacle in the throat or mouth.

If the mouth is partly open, the passing breath or voice is obstructed by certain parts of the mouth; thus the *spirants*, as f, v, s, z, and the *trills*, as r, are produced.

If the mouth is entirely closed, an explosion takes place, when the stoppage is removed; the sounds produced by this explosion, such as b, p, g, k, are called explosives (stops, checks). If the uvula is dropped so as to let the breath pass through the nose passage, nasals, such as m are produced.

According to the part of the mouth where the friction or stoppage takes place, we distinguish again the following groups of consonants:—

- (1) Back or guttural consonants, such as k, ch in the Scotch and German loch.
- (2) Front or palatal formed by the middle of the tongue and the hard palate, such as y in you.
- (3) Point, formed by the tip of the tongue and the gums, such as t, d, and by the tip of the tongue and the teeth, as th in thin.
- (4) Blade, formed by the blade of the tongue—that part of it which is immediately behind the point, such as, s, z.

Point and blade consonants are also called dentals.

(5) Lip, or labial, formed by the lips only, such as p, m, or by the lip and teeth, such as f, v.

Again, bearing in mind, that the breath which produces consonants is either *unvoiced* or *voiced* (see above, § 16), we arrive at the following table of consonants, in which those occurring in Modern English are illustrated by examples:—

	SPIRANTS.	NTS.		Explosives.	•
	Unvoiced.	Voiced.	Unvoiced.	Voiced.	Nasal.
2. Root of tongue and soft palate	$\left\{\begin{array}{c} h \\ \text{ch (in Scotch)} \\ \log h \end{array}\right\}$	: :	: <b>.</b> %	; <i>p</i> a	 ng (ki <i>ng</i> )
hard palate 4. Tip of tongue and	:	y (you)	:	:	:
hard palate 5. Tip of tongue and	•	<b>1-4</b>	÷	:	:
6. Tip of tongue and	:		+	р	¤
edge of teeth 7. Blade of tongue and	th (breath)	th (brea <i>th</i> e)	:	:	:
teeth 8. Blade and hard	s (sin)	z (zeal)	:	:	:
palate, with tip of tongue raised 9. Lower lip and upper	sh (sharp)	zh (pleasure)	:	:	:
teeth  10. Upper and lower lips  11. Lips rounded, with	::	<b>&gt;</b> :	.: Q.	ە:	: #
back of the tongue raised	wh	¥	:	:	ŧ

19. The following list will serve to show the inconsistency of the present system of spelling with regard to consonants:—

	Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbols.	Instances.
h		-	hall, hurt
ch		x	loch (Scotch)
с, сс,	ck, ch, k, qu, gh	k ≺	(call, sceptic accuse deck, luck chaos, anchor, stomach keen, book quoit, conquer, picturesque hough, lough
g, gg	, gh, gu	g {	(garden, bag dagger, egg ghostly, ghost guard, plague
ng, n		Ŋ	long, singer, think
y, i, j	, h, e	j {	yet, you million, onion hallelujah hue, human Europe, ewe
	h, t(e), t	tš {	chaff, beech eatch, witch courteous creature, nature
<b>j,</b> g, ∂	dg(e), d(i), d	dž {	jar, jewel gem, giant, age edge, ridge soldier verdure
r, rr,	rh, rrh	r {	rag, rob barrel, sorry rhomb, rhythm catarrh
1, 11		1	lame, all, tall
t, tt, t	h, d	t {	tell, hot matter, butter Thames, Thomas asked, dressed

Ordinary Spelling.	Phone Symb	
d, dd	d	$\begin{cases} dog, bed \\ adder, odd \end{cases}$
n, nn, gn, kn	n	in, inn, gnome, know
th .	þ	thank, method, bath
th	ð	{ than, the, though, father, with, bathe
s, ss, sc, c, sch, ps		(sand, absurd disobey house, use dissect, glass scene, scent cell, place schism psalm, psychology
z, zz, s, ss, sc, x	z	zeal, raze buzz, buzzard easy, rosy, ways dessert, possess discern Xerxes
sh, s(i), s, ss(i), ss, sc(i), t(i), c(i), c(e), ch	} š	sharp, ash Persia, conversion sure, sugar concession, passion tissue conscience nation, patient ancient, social ocean chagrin, machine
s(i), s, z, (ge)	ž	confusion, occasion composure, pleasure acure (rouge)
f, ff, ph, gh	ſ	fall, life offer, off philology, hyphen cough, enough

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbols.	Instances,
v, f, ph	$\mathbf{v}  \left\{ egin{array}{l} v & \text{ale, I} \\ \text{of} \\ \text{ne} p h \text{ev} \end{array} \right.$	ive v, Ste <i>ph</i> en
p, pp, (ph)	$p = \begin{cases} pan, ga \\ happy \\ (diphtheternal part) \end{cases}$	a <i>p</i> nong, na <i>ph</i> tha) <sup>t</sup>
b, bb, pb	$\mathbf{b}  \left\{ egin{array}{l} b \mathrm{aby, \ c} \\ \mathrm{bu} b b \mathrm{le,} \\ \mathrm{cu} oldsymbol{p} b \mathrm{oa.} \end{array}  ight.$	
m, mm	m my, an	n, ha <i>mm</i> er

The ancient Latin grammarians (translating Greek terms) called the unvoiced stops (p, t, k) tenues (literally "thin" sounds), and the voiced stops (b, g, d) mediae (because they supposed them to stand midway between the tenues and the aspirates; see § 20). These terms will occasionally be used in the following chapter. Some other synonymous designations, as hard and soft, sharp and flat, are common in English grammars, but are not employed in this work.

20. Certain classes of consonant-sounds, which were not referred to in § 18, require to be mentioned here, in order to render intelligible what is said in the next chapter.

Aspirates are sounds consisting of explosives accompanied of followed by an emission of breath; they may be approximately represented by the sounds of the italicized pairs of letters in the words cabhorse, woodhouse, bighorn; Liphook, sweetheart, blockhead; those resembling the first three being voiced aspirates, while those resembling the last three are unvoiced aspirates. The ancient Greek  $\phi$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\chi$  were unvoiced aspirates; but because in late Greek these letters came to be pronounced f, th (as in thin), ch (as in loch), the name of aspirates has often been erroneously given to the latter sounds, which are properly called spirants.

<sup>1</sup> But many persons pronounce f.

Affricates are complex sounds produced by beginning to pronounce an explosive and changing it into a spirant. English has two affricates, ch in church (tš) and j in judge (dž); modern German has pf and z (pronounced ts).

Some explanation is necessary with regard to the use of certain letters in the following chapter to denote sounds in other languages than English. In the spelling of words of the Primitive Teutonic language, j is used (as in the phonetic notation given above) for the consonant which begins the word you; but in writing Sanskrit and Primitive Aryan words this sound is expressed by y. In Sanskrit words the letters c and j denote respectively unvoiced and voiced palatal stops, but the English affricates ch (tš) and j (dž) are near enough to the correct sounds to be used instead.

# CHAPTER III

# THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES

21. When we compare the various Teutonic dialects, we find certain characteristics which show that they have a common origin, and by which they are distinguished from the other branches of the Aryan languages. The study of these dialects in their older forms has enabled scholars to reconstruct inferentially, with a considerable approach to certainty, the vocabulary and grammar of the Primitive Teutonic language, from which they have all been developed by gradual divergent changes. Similarly, the comparison of Primitive Teutonic with Keltic, Slavonic, Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, &c., has rendered it possible, to some extent, to reconstruct the Primitive Aryan tongue, from which all the Indo-European languages descend.

The changes by which Primitive Aryan developed into the different historically known Aryan languages are of three kinds. 1. Alterations in the vowel and consonant sounds of which words are composed. These changes took place with such regularity that if we know the Primitive Aryan form of a word we can usually predict the form in which, if it survived, it will be found in Teutonic, Greek, Latin, or Sanskrit. 2. The loss of ancient grammatical forms, and the development of new ones. 3. Loss of

ancient words, or changes in their meaning; and formation of new words.

In this chapter the phonetic and grammatical features which distinguish the Teutonic from the other Aryan languages will be briefly described.

# I.—THE TEUTONIC VOWELS.

22. The Aryan vowel-system, which is best represented by the oldest Greek, was in all probability the following:—

Short vowels: a, i, e, u, o; Long vowels:  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ ; Diphthongs: ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou.

These vowels are faithfully reflected in the Teutonic languages, only the following changes took place:—-

(1) Aryan δ became a:—Greek ὀκτώ, Latin octo, Gothic ahtau, Old English (e)ahta (eight); Latin nox (from noct-s), Gothic nahts, German nacht (night); Latin hostis, Polish gość, Gothic gasts, German gast (guest); Greek σκότος, Gothic skadus, German schatten (shade).

Note.—Hence also the change of the Aryan diphthong oi into ai, and of ou into au:—

Greek φέροις, Gothic bairais (you may bear); Greek οίδα, Gothic wait (I know); Aryan bhebhoudhe, Sanskrit bubôdha, Gothic bauþ (I bade); Aryan roudhos, Gothic rauds (red).

- (2) Aryan  $\bar{a}$  became  $\bar{o}$ :—Latin  $m\bar{a}ter$ , Old English  $m\bar{b}der$ ; Latin  $fr\bar{a}ter$ , Old English bropor; Latin  $f\bar{a}gus$ , Old English  $b\bar{b}octrbow$  (beech-tree).
- (3) Aryan ei became ī (written ei in Gothic):—Greek λείπειν, Gothic leihwan (read līhwan), Old High German lihan, German leihen (to lend); Greek δείκνυμι, Gothic ga-teihan, Old High German zîhan, German zeihen (to accuse).

(4) The sonants r, l, m, n (i.e., r, l, m, and n used as vowels) became respectively ur, ul, um, un:—Sanskrit vrka, Gothic wulfs (wolf); Sanskrit tršús, Old Norse þurr (dry), German durst (thirst); Aryan kmtom, Sanskrit çatúm, Latin centum, Gothic hund (hundred). 7, 355.

# II.—THE TEUTONIC CONSONANTS: GRIMM'S AND VERNER'S LAW.

23. The Teutonic languages differ much more from Primitive Aryan in the consonants than in the vowels.

The Primitive Aryan consonant-system is preserved with considerable exactness in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, and Old Keltic, though each of these languages has altered some of the original sounds. In Sanskrit, Lithuanian, and Slavonic, the original gutturals have partly become palatals and sibilants. In Greek the voiced aspirates became voiceless, and in Latin they are partly represented by spirants, partly by voiced stops; in Lithuanian, Slavonic, and Keltic they are represented by voiced stops. Keltic always drops an original p. Allowing for these and a few other deviations, we may take words from any of the five languages above mentioned as illustrations of the Primitive Aryan system of consonants.

The Primitive Teutonic system of consonants remains, without essential alteration, in Gothic and the early forms of the Low German and Scandinavian languages. The principal changes in consonants characteristic of the development of Teutonic from Primitive Aryan are collectively known as the First Consonant-Shifting. In historical times a Second Consonant-Shifting (§ 26) took place, by which certain Primitive Teutonic consonants were changed in the High German dialects, so that, for instance, if a word begins with t in Gothic or Low German, the High German form of it will begin with z (pronounced ts).

The most important of the consonant-changes by which Primitive Aryan was developed into Teutonic are summed up in two formulæ, called, from the names of their discoverers, Grimm's and Verner's Law.

24. Grimm's Law, which was stated by its discoverer in a form no longer admitted as correct, may (so far as it relates to the First Consonant-Shifting) be expressed as follows:

Aryan voiced aspirates became voiced spirants, which afterwards mostly developed into voiced stops; Aryan voiced stops became unvoiced stops; Aryan unvoiced stops became unvoiced spirants.

(1) The Aryan voiced aspirates bh, dh, gh, first became voiced spirants, and these when initial, afterwards developed into the voiced stops b, d, g. Instances: Sanskrit  $bh\acute{a}r\bar{a}mi$ , Greek  $\phi\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omega$ , Gothic baira (I bear); Sanskrit  $dv\bar{a}r$  from dhvar, Greek  $\theta\acute{\nu}\rho a$ , Gothic  $da\acute{u}r$  (door); Greek  $\sigma\tau\acute{\epsilon}i\chi\omega$ , Gothic steiga (I ascend).

When not initial, the Teutonic voiced spirants generally remained such. Thus Aryan bh is represented by v in the English cleave (O.E. cléofian, where the f was pronounced v); the Old English letter g when not initial was pronounced as a spirant. And although non-initial Aryan dh is represented in English and Low German by d, the older sound v0 remained in Old Norse, as in miv1 (mid, middle), compare Sanskrit madhya2; mjv2 (mead), compare Sanskrit madhya3; mjv3 (mead), compare Sanskrit madhya4. In Gothic spelling the representatives of the Aryan aspirates appear as v3, v4, v5, whether initial or not; but when non-initial these letters were probably pronounced as spirants.

(2) Voiced stops (mediae) became unvoiced, that is, b, d, g, became p, t, k. Instances: Latin *tribus*, Gothic paurp

(thorp); Greek καρδία, Gothic hairtô (heart); Greek ἔργον, O.E. weorc (work).

(3) Voiceless stops (tenues) became voiceless spirants, that is Aryan p, t, k became, in Teutonic, f, p, h (pro nounced like ch in Scotch loch). Instance: Greek ποῦς, Latin pes, Gothic fôtus, O.E. fôt (foot); Latin frater, Gothic brôpar, O.E. brôδοr (brother); Latin cornu, Gothic haûrn, O.E. horn.

Exceptions.—The combinations sp, sk, st, remained unchanged; and pt, kt became ft, ht respectively.

25. Verner's Law.—At a later period, but while the accent still fell on the same syllables as in Primitive Aryan (see § 29), the voiceless spirants just mentioned, when immediately following or terminating an originally unaccented syllable, became voiced spirants, which afterwards were treated in the same way as the older voiced spirants mentioned in (1). Hence the Aryan p, t, k are in Gothic represented by f, p, h when initial or immediately following the original accent, but in any other position by b, d, g. This rule is called Verner's Law. Instances: Sanskrit saptán, Greek  $\epsilon \pi \tau a$ , Gothic  $\epsilon a$  sanskrit  $\epsilon a$  sanskrit

The Aryan spirant s and its development belong here. According to Verner's Law it became voiced under the same conditions as f,  $\mathfrak{p}$ , h, that is, s became first z, then r, when the next preceding vowel had not the stress. Instances: Sanskrit fafa (for fafa), O.E. fafa (hare); Gothic fafa: O.E. fafa (more), Gothic fafa: O.E. fafa (better), Gothic fafa: Gothic fafa: fafa: O.E. fafa (ear).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The comparative had in Aryan the stress on the ending.

Verner's Law explains also two grammatical points, namely the change of (f), th, h, s and (b), d, g, r in

- (a) the singular and plural preterite of strong verbs.
- (b) intransitive and causal verbs.
- (a) Of the O.E. verb séodan (to seethe) we have the singular preterite ic séad (I seethed) with a th, but the plural preterite and participle past with a d, we sudon (we seethed), soden (seethed). This is accounted for by the fact that in Aryan, the singular preterite was accented on the stem, the plural preterite and participle past on the ending. Compare Sanskrit vavárta (he turned), vavrtimá (we turned), vavrtāná (turned). In O.E. the verb weorðan (to become), which answers exactly to the Sanskrit verb vartāmi, therefore has

weard (I became) wurdon (we became) worden (become).

# Other instances :--

sníðan (to cut), snáð (I cut), snidon (we cut), sniden (cut). wréon (to cover), wréah (I covered), wrigon (we covered), wrigen (covered). céosan (to choose), céas (I choose), curon (we chose), coren (chosen).

(b) In Primitive Teutonic causals were formed out of intransitive verbs by means of the suffix -jo, as in Gothic reisan (to rise) and raisjan (to raise). But when we look at the Old English form of the causal belonging to risan (to rise), we find rieran (to rear) with an r. This change is accounted for by the fact that, in Aryan, the causals were accented on the ending, not on the stem.

# Other examples:-

Liban (to go), lédan (to make go, to lead); Gothic nasjan (to save), Old E. nerian; Gothic hasjan (to praise), Old E. herian.

26. High German Consonants.—From the sixth to the eighth century a number of unconnected consonant-changes took place in High German, the results of which form the most striking difference between the High German and the other Teutonic dialects. These changes are collectively known as the *Second Consonant-Shifting*, and the laws by which they are regulated are commonly spoken of as forming part of Grimm's Law, because they were included in the formula of that Law as originally framed.

In the statement of Grimm's Law given by Grimm himself, and unfortunately still repeated in most English books on philology, a delusive appearance of simplicity is given to these High German changes. The Second Consonant-Shifting is made to seem as if it consisted in a repetition of the same process of development by which the Aryan became the Teutonic consonant-system. The change from early Teutonic to High German, like the change from Aryan to Teutonic, was supposed to be reducible to the following formula: "Aspirates became mediae; mediae became tenues; tenues became aspirates." The only instance in which this formula perfectly corresponds with fact is that of the Teutonic media d, which did become the High German tenuis t. The semblance of regularity in the law as originally stated is due to the confusion of aspirates with spirants and affricates. But even when these three classes of consonants were regarded as mutually equivalent, there remained many cases in which the rule conspicuously failed, e.g. the High German haus (house) ought, according to Grimm's Law as often stated, to begin with g, and feld (field) with b. In fact no High German dialect of any period ever changed a Teutonic f or h into voiced stops; the instances that used to be quoted of such a change in the middle or end of words are now, differently explained.

It would be out of place here to give the details of the Second Consonant-Shifting in the various Old High German dialects. The following rules will enable the student to recognize the modern German etymological equivalents of English words.

Old English p, t, k after vowels correspond to Ger. f, ss, ch; in other positions to ff, z, k.

Some O.H.G. dialects had ch for the modern k; the modern ch in the middle of words was anciently written hh.

Old English f,  $\delta$ , h correspond to Ger. f (or v), d, h. But O.E. f at the end of a word often stands for a Teutonic *voiced* spirant, and then corresponds to Ger. h, as in léaf = Ger. laub.

English v (written f in O.E.) corresponds to Ger. b.

Old English d corresponds to Ger. t. Old English b, g correspond to Ger. b (occasionally p) and g.

In the Alemannic and Bavarian dialects of O.II.G., the tenues p, t, k usually appear where O.E. has b, g, d.

The O.E. doubled consonants

pp, tt, cc, bb, dd, cg (= gg) ff, 
$$\delta\delta$$
, hh

correspond to the German

- 27. The subjoined "Illustrations of Grimm's and Verner's Law" will in general be intelligible from what has been said in §§ 23-26. One or two points, however, need to be observed in explanation of certain seeming irregularities.
- (1) Both Sanskrit and Greek have a phonetic law which prohibits the occurrence of two aspirates in the same root. Hence, if an Aryan root both begins and ends with voiced aspirates, the initial will be represented in Sanskrit by a media (voiced stop), and in Greek by a tenuis (unvoiced stop).

(2) The Aryan language had a group of sounds in which (either originally or by a subsequent development in some of the dialects) there was a mixture of guttural and labial utterance. These are represented in Sanskrit by gutturals, palatals, or sibilants; in Greek they are variously rendered (chiefly according to the nature of the adjacent vowel) by gutturals, labials, or dentals; and in Teutonic chiefly by gutturals, sometimes followed by w. For examples see III., VIII., IX of the following tables.

# ILLUSTRATIONS OF GRIMM'S AND VERNER'S LAW.

I. Sansk. bh; Gr. \$\phi\$; Lat. f(b); Goth. b; Ger. b (O. H. G. b, p).

English.	hreak. bore. I bear. bottom. bough. bow (O. E. búgan). be (O. E. béom).
Ger.	brechen bohren  O. H. G. biru  O. H. G. biru  boden (O.H.G.  bodam)  bug  nebel  nebel  nebel
Gothic.	brikan brûḥar baira biugan nibls
Latin.	frangere forare frater fero fundus — fugio — fugis fui
Greek.	φάρος (plough) φρατήρ φερω πυθμήν πήχυς φεύγω φηγός φυνός
Sanskrit.	Zend. bar( = bhar) φάρος (plough) to bore bhrátr bhar na), depth báhu (= bháhu), πῆχυς arm bhuj (to bend) φεύγω nábhas hy φηγός bhu

II. Sansk. dh; Gr.  $\theta$ ; Lat. f(d, b); Goth. d; Ger. t.

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
duhitr	θυγάτηρ	ı	dauhtar tochter	tochter	daughter.
dvâra (=dhvâra)   θύρα	θύρα	fores	daur tor	tor	door.
dhâ	πίθημι	do in con-do, &c.	1	thun	do.
1	θέμις		dôms	I	doom.
dhû (to shake, blow)	dhù (to shake, $\theta \nu \omega, \theta \nu \epsilon \lambda \alpha, \theta \nu \mu \delta s$ fumus, suf-fio dauns (smell) O. II. G. tunist dust. blow)	fumus, suf-fio	dauns (smell)	O. H. G. tunist (storm)	dust.
dhar (to support)	dhar (to support)   θράνος (bench)   firmus	firmus	1	1	1
dharš	θαρσείν fortis	fortis	ga-daursan	O. H. G. gi-tar dare, durst. (I dare)	dare, durst.
vadh (to carry home a pledge)	άεθλον (άΓεθλον) vas (vad-is)	vas (vad-is)	wadi	wette	O. E. wed pledge).
indh (to burn)	indh (to burn) αίθω	æstas, ædes	1	O.H.G. eit (fire)	O.H.G. eit (fire) O. E. ád. (a funeral pile).
- madhya	madhya $\mu \epsilon \sigma \sigma s$ (from methyes)	medius	midja	mitte	mid-dle, midst.
rudhira (blood)	φ	ruber, rufus rauds	:	roth	red.
k					

f, b, zu, v: Goth. w (for zw), z; Ger. w, z.; Goth. z; Ger. z. III. Sansk. gh(jh);  $\{Gr. \phi, \theta, x\}$   $\{Gr. x; Lat. \}$  Sansk. h; Gr. x; Lat. h, g; GrSansk. h; Gr. x;

gharma	θερμός	formus	1	warm	warm.
ghas (to eat)		hostis, hospes	gasts	gast	guest.
1	χέω	1	giutan	giessen	O. E. géotan (to pour).
hansa  χήν	χήν	anser (= hanser) gans	gans	gans	goose.
haryâmi (I love). Χαίρω	χαίρω	gratus	-gairns (greedy).	gern (gladly)	yearn.
l	χόρτος	co-hors, hortus	gards (house)	garten	garden, yard, or- chard (= ort-
					yard).
hyas	χθέs	heri, hesternus	gistra	gestern	yester-day.
1	ı	trahere	dragan	tragen	draw.
1	νίφα (accus.)	ninguit, nivem	snaiws	schnee (O.H.G. snéo, gen. snéwes)	snow.
vah (to carry)	vah (to carry)   ŏxos	vehere	wigs (way)	wagen (carriage), weg (way)	wain(O.E.wægn), way(O.E.weg).
stigh (to mount). oteixa	στείχω	1	steigan (to go up) steigen	steigen	O.E. stige (stye).

IV. Sansk. b; Gr. B; Lat. b; Goth. p; Ger. f.1

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
1	каруадіѕ	1	O.N. hanpr hanf		hemp.
kubja (crooked).   kv8os.	κύβος	cubare	hups	huf	hip, hump.

<sup>1</sup> The initial p for Aryan b is rare in Teutonic words. In Sans., Gr., and Lat. b has been developed from other sounds.

V. Sansk. d: Gr. 5; Lat. d (later changed into /); Goth. t; O. H. Ger. z (Ger. s. s. s.).

ı	бакри	кре lacruma (= da- tagr zähre t	tagr	zähre	tear.	
dvasvid (to sweat)	<i>1</i> 0 ≈	ύω duoδρώς sudare		twai zwei two, twain. sweitan O.H.G. swizzan. to sweat.	two, twain.	•
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daçan	δέκα	<b>бека</b> decem	taihun	zehn (O. H. G. ten, tithe.	ten, tithe.
dant	δδούs (-όντοs)	οδούς (-όντος) dens	tun þus	zahn (O. H. G. tooth (O. E. top zand) = ton!).	tooth (O.E. top $= tonb$ ).
svådu	ήδύs	suāvis (= suād· surisvis)	sutis	süss	sweet (O.E. swót).
ad	€8€1v	edere	itan	essen	eat.
vid	etbeir olda	videre	witan	wissen	wit (wot, wist).
dam	δαμάω	domare	tamjan	zähmen	tame.
dama (house)	δόμος	snmop	timrjan (to build)	zimmer	timber.
druma (wood)	δρύς, δόρυ, δένδρον	1	triu	ı	tree.
dar (tear)	δέρω	1	tairan	zehren	tear.
diç (to show)	δείκνυμι	dico	teihan	zeihen (to accuse) O. E. téon.	O. E. téon.
nîda (nest)	1	midus	ı	nest	nest.
1	карбіа	cor (cordis)	hairtô	hërza	heart.
pâda	πούς (ποδός)	pes (pedis)	fôtus	fuss	foot.
r-pn	ύδωρ	nnda	watô	wasser	water.
l	ρίζα, Βρίζα	radix	waurts	O. H. G. wurza. O.E. wurt (herb,	O.E. wurt (herb,
					plant; cp cole- wort, cabbage plant).
		-	_	-	

VI. Sanskrit, &c., p; Goth. f (by Verner's Law b); Ger. f or v (by Verner's Law b).

·	Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
<del></del>	pancan	πέμπε (πέντε)	πέμπε (πέντε) quinque (from fimf pinque)	funf	fünf	five.
1	pûrna	πλέος	plenus	plenus fulls full	:	full.
	pitṛ	<b>т</b> атήр	pater	fadar	vater	father (O. E. fader).
	upari	ύπέρ	super	ufar	über	over.
	apa (away)	ἀπδ	ab	af	ab	off, of.
	parâ (away)	тара per	per	fra-	ver for	for.
	par (to bring over)	par (to bring περάω, πόρος (pas- porta (gate), ex- faran over) sage)	porta (gate), ex- perior 1	faran	fahren fare.	fare.
	prî (to please, to love)	prî (to please, to πρατε	1	frijôn	freund, freuen (to friend be glad) fréon, t	friend (O. E. fréon, to love).
	pat-tra (wing), from pat, to fly	πτερόν, πέτομαι	penna (=pesna), peto	1	feder	fea-ther (= feth-ther).
•	ı	1	paucus	faws	O.H.G. föh	O.H.G. foh few (O. E. féa- wa).
	prac (ask)		precor	fraihnan, fragan.	precor fraihnan, fragan. fragen O. E. fregnan.	O. E. fregnan.

1 Cp. Lat. periculum; Ger. zefahr; Ger. wohlzefahrt; Gr. εὐπορία.

VII. Sansk. 1; Goth. p (by Verner's Law d); Get. d (by Verner's Law t).

tvam		τύ pu pu	nd	mp	thou (O. E. pu).
tam (acc.)	τόν	is-tum, ta-lis,	ta-lis, tha-na	den	the (thi-s, tha-t).
- Ei	τρεῖς	tres	preis	drei	three.
antara		1	anþar	ander	other (=on-ther)
l	ταλάω	tolero	þulan	dulden (O.H.G. thole suffer).	thole (suffer).
tan (stretch)	tan (stretch)	tendo	banja (extendo) dehnen	dehnen	O.E. penian.
tanus (thin)	ı	tenuis	O. N. punnr dinn	dünn	thin.
tu (be powerful).   rats (great)	τατ's (great)	totus, tutus, Umb.	piuda (people)	totus,tutus,Umb. piuda (people) O.H.G. diot O.E. péod.	O.E. péod.
tarš	πέρσομαι	torreo	þairsan dursten	dursten	to thirst.
kratu (power)	kratu (power) κρατύs	1	hardus	hardus hart	hard.
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Sansk. $\kappa_i$ , $c_i$ , or, $\pi_i$ , $\tau_i$ , $\kappa_i$ , tail. $\psi_i$ , $c_i$ of the $i$ ,		Sansk. c; Gr. k; Lat. c; Goth. h (1y Verner's Law g); Ger. h (by Verner's Law g).

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gorhic.	Ger.	English.
kapâla	κεφαλή	caput	caputhaubiþhaupt	haupt	head(O.E.héafod,
kas, -cid (=kva)	kas, -cid (=kva) πόs, κό-s, τίs	quis hwa-s	hwa-s	wer	who (O.E. hwa)
paçu	1	pecus	faihu	vieh	fee (O.E. feoh),
1	$\partial \kappa - \zeta s = \partial - \pi \delta s$ ,	oc-ulus	augô	auge	cattle. eye (O.E. eáge).
çvaçura	καρδία έκυρός	cor (cordis)	hairtôswaihra	herzschwäger	heart. O.E. sweor.
çâlâ (house)	καλία	cella, domicilium	1		hall.
çi (to lie)	кеї тап	quies, civ-is	haims (village) heim	heim	home (O.E.
1	κλέπτω, κλέπτης clepo	clepo	hlifan (to steal) .		shop-lifter (O.E.
çvan	κύων, κυνός	canis	hunbs	punq	hound.
çveta (white)	1	1	hweits	weiss	white.
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IX. Sansk. g, j; Gr. y, B, S; Lat. g, gu, v; Gothic k, q; Ger. qu, k, ch.

go	Boûs	bos (not regular)	1	kuh	cow.
gam	βαίνω	venio	qiman	kommen come.	come.
jîva (alive)	βίοs (life)	vivus	qius	keck, queck quick.	quick.
jnâ	γνώμι gnosco	gnosco	kunnan	kennen	ken, con, know.
1	1		kan	kann	can.
jâti	γένος	genus	kuni	O. H. G. kuni	kin.
1	γόνοs (offspring).	1	O. Sax. kind	kind	child.
jânu	γόνυ genu	genu	kniu	knie	knee.
janî (mother)	janî (mother)   rvrh	1	qino, qens	O.H.G. chena queen.	queen.
1	έγώ	ego	ik	ik ich I (O. E. ic).	I (O.E. ic).
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# Doubling of Consonants or Gemination.

28. Double consonants are another characteristic of Teutonic in contradistinction to Aryan. In the following words we find single *l*, *m*, *n*, in Aryan, but *ll*, *mm*, *nn*, in Teutonic:—(*ll* developed from Aryan *rn* or *ln*):—Sanskrit pûrna, Gothic fulls (full), compare Latin plenus; Sanskrit ûrnâ, Gothic wulla (wool); Old Slovenic vlina, Old High-German wella (wave). mm (from Aryan sm):—Sanskrit tasmâd, Gothic þamma (dative singular of sa, 'the'); Sanskrit asmâi, Gothic imma (dative singular of is, 'he'). nn (from Aryan nu):—Greek μυνύω, Latin minuo, Gothic minniza (least); Latin tenuis, Old English δynne (thin).

Apart from these doublings which are of common Teutonic origin, there are others found only in the West-Teutonic languages, which derive from a single consonant followed by j, as in sellan (to sell), Gothic saljan; settan (to set), Gothic satian; hebban (to heave), Gothic hafjan; lecg(e)an (to lay), Gothic lagjan.

Note.—The suffix -jo thus produces in English causal verbs, not only change of vowel (§ 58) but also doubling of consonants.

# III.—Accent in Teutonic.

29. In the prehistoric periods of the Teutonic languages the accent was not fixed to certain syllables—e.g., to the first, last, or penultimate of the word, as in Polish and Bohemian, or ruled by the quantity of the vowels, as in Greek and Latin, but as in Sanskrit, and still in Russian, might occupy any position in a polysyllable (of course retaining the same position in the same word). Later on the first syllable became the bearer of the accent in nominal forms (both simple and compound) and in simple verbs.

# IV.—Dropping of Final Sounds.

- 30. It is owing to this change of the accent that certain sounds which were formerly to be found at the end of the word, were either shortened or altogether discarded.
- (1) Final m was changed into n:—Aryan tom, Sanskrit tam, Latin istum, Gothic pan-a, German den (accusative sg. masc.); Aryan im, Sanskrit im-am, Gothic ina (him, acc.).

This n was afterwards dropped:—the ending, which was in Aryan om, became in Teutonic an, and then was dropped altogether, so that we have wolf (acc. sg.) instead of wolfom (Latin lup-um), word instead of wordom (Latin verb-um).

- (2) Final t and d were dropped:—Latin velīt, Gothic wili (he will); Aryan bheroit, Gothic bairai (he may bear); Skr. áyât, Gothic iddja (he went); Latin quod, Gothic hwa (what).
- (3) The short vowels a, e, o, and i in two and three syllabled words, were dropped:—Sanskrit vittha, Greek οἶσθα, Gothic waist (thou knowest); Latin ego (from Aryan egom), Gothic ik (I); Aryan penqe, Greek πέντε, Gothic fimf (five); Greek ἐμέ-γε, Gothic mik, German mich (me); Sanskrit upári, Gothic ufar (over); Sanskrit bháranti, Gothic baírand (they bear).

Note.—Teutonic final s (when sounded as in was) was kept in Gothic, changed into r in Old Norse, and dropped in the other Teutonic dialects:—Gothic wulfs, Norse úlfr, Old English wulf (wolf).

The changes undergone by the final sounds in Teutonic explain the Teutonic declension and conjugation in their relation to the other Aryan languages.

### V.- GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF TEUTONIC.

- 31. The Teutonic languages are marked by the following points of difference from the grammatical system of Primitive Aryan:—
  - (1) The Aryan Dual of the noun disappeared in Teutonic.

Note.—The Old English nouns nosu (nose), bréost (breast), and sculdru (shoulders) are considered by some scholars to be remnants of the Aryan dual number.

- (2) The Imperfect and Aorist Tenses disappeared.
- (3) The Preterite of the weak verbs in -d (love-d) is peculiar to the Teutonic languages.
- (4) The Subjunctive was supplanted by another mood which answers to the Greek Optative: Greek φέροις, Gothic bairais (thou mayest bear).
- (5) The Passive disappeared, only Gothic exhibits remnants of it: haita (I call), haitada (I am called), Old English hátte (I am called); Middle English hight answers to Gothic haitada.

### CHAPTER IV

### HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

- 32. We must bear in mind, (1) that English is a member of the Indo-European family; (2) that it belongs to the Teutonic group; (3) that it is essentially a Low German dialect; (4) that it was brought into Britain by wandering tribes from the Continent; (5) that we cannot use the terms English or England in connection with the country before the middle of the fifth century.
- 33. According to the statements of Bæda, the Teutonic invaders first came over in A.D. 449, and for about 100 years the invasion may be said to have been going on. In the course of time the original Keltic population were displaced by the invading tribes, who became a great nationality, and called themselves Englisc or English. The land they had won they called Engla-land (the land of the Angles) or England.

Bæda makes the Teutonic invaders to consist of three tribes—Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The Saxons, he tells us, came from what was known in his time as the district of the Old Saxons, the country between the Elbe and the Eider.

The Angles came from the Duchy of Sleswick, and there is still a district in the southern part of the duchy,

between the Slie and the arm of the Baltic, called the Flensborg Fiord, which bears the name Angeln.

Bæda places the Jutes to the north of the Angles, that is, probably the upper part of Sleswick or South Jutland.

There were no doubt a considerable proportion of Frisians from Greater and Lesser Friesland. Bæda mentions the Frisians (Fresones) among the natives from whom the Angles were descended.

The settlements are said to have taken place in the following order:—

- Jutes, under Hengest and Horsa, who settled in KENT and the Isle of Wight and a part of Hampshire in A.D. 449 or 450.
- II. The first division of the Saxons, under Ella (Ælle) and Cissa, settled in Sussex, in 477.
- III. The second body of Saxons, under Cerdic and Cynric, in WESSEX, in 495.
- IV. The third body of Saxons in Essex, in 530.
- V. First division of the Angles, in the kingdom of EAST ANGLIA (Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and parts of Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire).
- VI. The second division of the Angles, under Ida, in the kingdom of Beornicia (situated between the Tweed and the Firth of Forth), in 547.

Two other kingdoms were subsequently established by the Angles—*Deira* (between Tweed and Humber), and *Mercia*, comprehending the Midland counties.

Teutonic tribes were known in Britain, though there is no evidence that they made any settlements before A.D. 449. In the fourth century they made attacks upon the eastern and south-eastern coast of this island, from the Wash to the Isle of Wight, which, on that account, was called "Littus

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mercia—march or frontier. In Southern and West Mercia the people were of Saxon origin; the others came of an Anglian stock.

Saxonicum," or the Saxon shore; and an officer known as the Count of the Saxon Shore (Comes Littoris Saxonici per Britannias) was appointed for its defence. These Teutonic invaders were known to the Romans and Kelts by the name of Saxons; and this term was afterwards applied by them to all the Teutonic settlers of the fifth century without distinction. On the other hand, not only Bæda's "Angles," but also his "Saxons" and "Jutes," appear in historical times almost always to have spoken of themselves as Engle, and of their language as Englisc.

34. The language that was brought into the island by the Low-German settlers was an *inflected* speech, like its congener, modern German. It was, moreover, on the whole, an *unmixed* language, all its words being English. Not a few words, however, were borrowed from the Latin, such as *esol* (asinus), cealc (calcem from calx, chalk), mynet (moneta, mint, coin), sútere (sutor, shoemaker).

The Old English borrowed but very few words from the original inhabitants. In the oldest English written language, from the ninth to the end of the eleventh century, we find but very few traces of Keltic words,  $dr\acute{y}$  (wizard) sácerd (priest, from Latin sacerdos), brocc (badger), bratt (cloak), dún (hill), and a few others.

In our old writers, from the thirteenth century downwards, and in the modern provincial dialects, we find more frequent traces of words of Keltic origin, and a few still exist in modern English.

35. The English were converted to Christianity about A.D. 596, and during the four following centuries many Latin words were introduced by Roman ecclesiastics, and by English writers who translated Latin works into their own language.

This is called the Latin of the Second Period. What is

usually designated the Latin of the First Period consists of words that were common to most of the Germanic languages, and were brought by the invaders from the Continent, or of such as had been introduced by the Romans, and are only to be found in names of places, as castra, a camp, in Don-caster, Chester, &c.

36. Towards the end of the eighth century the Northmen of Scandinavia (i.e. of Denmark, Norway and Sweden), who were then without distinction called Danes, ravaged England, Scotland, the Hebrides, and Ireland.

In the ninth century they gained a permanent footing in England, and subdued the kingdoms of Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia.

In the eleventh century Danish sovereigns were established on the English throne for nearly thirty years.

Chronologically the facts are as follows:-

In 787 three ships of Northmen appeared and made an attack upon the coast of Dorsetshire.

In 832 the Danes ravaged Sheppey in Kent.

In 833 thirty-five ships came to Charmouth in Dorsetshire, and Egbert was defeated by the Danes.

In 835 the Welsh and Danes were defeated by Egbert at Hengestesdun.

In 855 the Danes wintered in Sheppey.

In 866 they wintered in East Anglia.

In 868 they got into Mercia as far as Nottingham, and in 870 they invaded East Anglia.

In 871 the eastern part of Wessex was invaded by the Danes.

In 874 the Danes entered Lincolnshire.

In 876 they made settlements in Northumbria.

In 878 Alfred concluded a treaty with Guthorm or

Guthrum, the Danish chief, and formally ceded to the invaders all Northumberland and East Anglia, most part of Essex, and the north-east part of Mercia.

In 991 the Norwegians invaded the east coast of England and plundered Ipswich; they were defeated at the battle of Maldon. Before 1000 Danes had settled in Cumberland.<sup>1</sup>

In 1013 Svein, King of Denmark, conquered England; and between the years 1013 and 1042 a Danish dynasty ruled over England.

37. The Danish and English are allied tongues, and consequently there is an identity of roots, so that it is by no means an easy matter to detect the Danish words that have found their way into English.

In the literature of the tenth and eleventh centuries we find but few traces of Danish, and what little there is probably dates chiefly from the time of the Danish rule (1013 -1042) and is mostly found in the Anglo-Saxon chronicles and laws. Such words are: -ceallian (call), O.N. kalla, knif (knife) O.N. knifr, dwelian (dwell), O.N. dvelja, eorl (earl) O.N. jarl, feólaga (companion, fellow), O.N. felagi, grið (peace), O.N. grið, húsbonda (farmer, husband). O.N. húsbóndi, tacan (take), O.N. taka. We know, too, that in the north and east of England the Old English inflexions were much unsettled by Danish influence, and that in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries nearly all the older inflexions of nouns, adjectives, and verbs had disappeared, while in the south of England the old forms were kept up to a much later period, and many of them have not yet died out.

There are numerous traces of Scandinavian words—(1) in the local nomenclature of England; (2) in Middle English

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For an admirable account of the Danish invasions see Dr. Freeman's Old English History for Children, pp. 91-239.

literature of the north of England; (3) in the north of England provincial dialects.

In modern English they are not so numerous. It may be sufficient for the present to say that there are a few common words of undoubted Danish origin, as till, until, fro, froward, ill, bound (for a place), busk, bask, &c.

38. The next great event that affected the English language was the Norman invasion in 1066, by which French became the language of the Court, of the nobility, of the clergy, of literature, and of all who wished for or sought advancement in Church or State.<sup>1</sup>

An old writer tells us that gentlemen's children were taught French from their cradle; and in the grammarschools boys were taught to construe their Latin into French. Even uplandish men (or rustics) tried to speak French in order to be thought something of, so low did the English and their language fall into disrepute.

Vor bote a man conne frenss, me telp of him lute. (If a man does not know French, he counts for little.)

Robert of Gloucester, Chronicle, A.D. 1297.

- <sup>1</sup> To the Normans we owe most of the terms pertaining to (1) feudalism and war, (2) the church, (3) the law, and (4) the chase.
  - (1) Aid, arms, armour, assault, banner, baron, battle, buckler, captain, chivalry, challenge, duke, fealty, fief, gallant, hauberk, homage, lance, mail, march, soldier, tallage, truncheon, tournament, vassal, &c.
  - (2) Altar, Bible, baptism, ceremony, devotion, friar, homily, idolatry, interdict, piety, penance, prayer, preach, relic, religion, sermon, scandal, sacrifice, saint, tonsure.
  - (3) Assize, attorney, case, cause, chancellor, court, dower, damages, estate, fee, felony, fine, judge, jury, mulct, parliament, plaintiff, plea, plead, statute, sue, tax, ward.
  - (4) Bay, brace, chase, couple, copse, course, covert, falcon, forest, leash, leveret, mews, quarry, reynard, rabbit, tiercet, venison.

In the universities Latin or French was ordered to be used. French was employed in the courts of law, and the proceedings of Parliament were recorded in French.

The great mass of the people, however, clung to their mother-tongue, and from time to time there arose men who thought it a meritorious work to write in English, for the benefit of the "unlered and lewed," who know nothing of French.

It must be recollected that the Norman invaders did not carry on an exterminating war against the natives as the Saxons did against the Keltic inhabitants, nor were they superior in numbers to the English; and therefore, as might be expected, there came a time when the two races—the conquering and the conquered—coalesced and became one people, and the language of the majority prevailed. While this was taking place French became familiar to the English people, and very many words found their way first in the spoken and then in the written language. But after this coalescence of the two races Norman-French became of less and less importance, and at last ceased to be spoken.

In 1349 boys ceased to learn their Latin through the medium of French, and in 1362 (the 36th year of Edward III.) it was directed by Act of Parliament that all pleadings in the law courts should henceforth be conducted in English, because, as is stated in the preamble to the Act, French was become much unknown in the realm.

Norman-French had suffered too by being transported to English soil, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries came to be regarded as an inferior dialect in comparison with the "French of Paris."

These changes were brought about by political circumstances, such as the loss of Normandy in King John's reign, and the French wars of Edward III. (1339), which

produced a strong anti-Gallican feeling in the minds of both Anglo-Normans and English.

39. We have seen that Norman-French is sprung from the Latin language brought into Gaul by the Romans. It has, however, preserved (1) some few Keltic words borrowed from the old Gauls; (2) many Teutonic terms introduced by the Franks, who in the fifth century conquered the country, and imposed their name upon the country, and language; (3) a few Scandinavian words brought into the language by the Northmen who settled in Normandy in the tenth century.

But the Norman-French was essentially a Latin tongue, and it added to English another Latin element, which is usually called the *Latin of the third period*.

40. From the revival of learning in the beginning of the sixteenth century up to the present time we have introduced a large number of words from Latin. These have been called the Latin of the fourth period.

Greek words have also found their way into the language, but have been borrowed more sparingly than Latin.

The Latin element, then, comes to us either indirectly or directly. That introduced by the Norman-French comes indirectly, and has in very many instances undergone great change in spelling. Latin words of the fourth period are borrowed direct from the. Latin, and have not suffered much alteration. A few examples will make this clear:—

<sup>1</sup> As vassal, varlet, &c.

<sup>2</sup> Marshal, seneschal, guile, &c.

Latin introduced by Norman-French.	Latin borrowed directly from the Latin.	Latin
balm	balsam	balsamum
caitiff	captive	captivus
coy	quiet	quietus
feat	fact	factum
fashion	faction	factio
frail	fragile	fragilis
lesson	lection	lectio
penance	penitence	pænitentia
sure	secure	securus
trait	tract	tractus

Compare, too, ancestor and antecessor; sampler and exemplar; benison and benediction; conceit and conception; constraint and constriction; defeat and defect; forge and fabric; malison and malediction; mayor and major; nourishment and nutriment; poor and pauper; orison (prayer) and oration; proctor and procurator; purveyance and providence; ray and radius; respite and respect; sir and senior; surface and superficies; treason and tradition.

Loyal and legal; privy and private; royal and regal; strait and strict.

Aggrieve and aggravate; couch and collocate; construe and construct; esteem and estimate; paint and depict; purvey and provide; rule and regulate.

A few words from the Greek have suffered similar change, as frenzy, blame (cp. blaspheme), phantom (cp. fantasm), story (cp. history).

- 41. Our language has naturalized miscellaneous words from various sources besides those already mentioned.
  - (1) Hebrew.—Abbot, amen, cabal, cherub, jubilee, pharisaical, Sabbath, seraph, Shibboleth.
  - (2) Arabic.—Admiral, alchemy, alkali, alcohol, alcove, alembic, almanac (?), amulet, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, atlas, azure, bazaar, caliph, chemistry, cotton, cipher, dragoman, elixir, felucca, gazelle, giraffe, shrub, syrup, sofa, sherbet, talisman, tariff, tamarind, zenith, zero.

Arabia exercised powerful influence upon European 'ulture in the Middle Ages. Many words in the above list, a 'admiral, artichoke, assassin, &c., as well as most of the Oriental words in the following lists, have come to us through one of the Romance dialects.

- (3) Persian.—Caravan, chess, dervish, lac, lilac, orange, pasha, sash, shawl, turban, taffety.
- (4) *Hindu*.—Calico, chintz, dimity, jungle, loot, muslin, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, pundit, rajah, rice, rupee, sugar, toddy.
- (5) Malay.—(Run) a-muck, bantam, gamboge, orang outang, rattan, sago, verandah; tattoo and taboo (Polynesian); gingham (Java).
- (6) Chinese. Caddy, nankeen, tea.
- (7) Turkish.—Caftan, chouse, divan, janissary, odalisk, saloop, seimitar.
- (8) American.—Canoe, cocoa, hammock, maize, potato, skunk, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, wigwam, yam.
- (9) Italian.—Balustrade, bandit, bravo, bust, canto, carnival, charlatan, domino, ditto, dilettante, folio, gazette, grotto, harlequin, motto, portico, scaramouch, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, umbrella, vista, volcano, &c.
- (10) Spanish.—Alligator, armada, cargo, cigar, desperado, don, embargo, flotilla, gala, mosquito, punctillio, tornado, &c.
- (11) Portuguese. Caste, commodore, fetishism, palaver, porcelain, &c.
- (12) French.—Aide-de-camp, accoucheur, accouchement, attaché, au fait, belle, bivouac, belles-lettres, billet-doux, badinage, blasé, bon mot, bouquet, brochure, bonhomie, blonde, brusque, busk, coif, coup, début, débris, déjeuner, dépôt, éclat, élite, employé, ensemble, ennui, etiquette, entremets, façade, fiancée, foible, fricassé, goût, interne, omelet, naïve, naïveté, penchant, nonchalance, outré, passé, persifage, personnel, physique, précis, prestige, programme, protégé, rapport, redaction, renaissance, recherché, séance, soirée, trousseau.
- (13) Dutch. Block, boom, boor, cruise, loiter, ogle, ravel, ruffle, scamper, schooner, sloop, stiver, wiseacre, yacht, &c.
- (14) German.—Alpenstock, dachshund, landgrave, landgravine, maulstick, waltz, cobalt, nickel, quartz, felspar, zinc.
- 42. Taking the actual number of words from a good English dictionary, the sum total will be over 100,000. Words of classical origin are calculated to be about twice as numerous as pure English words; hence some writers, who have only considered the constituent parts of our vocabulary, have come to the conclusion that English is not only a mixed or composite language, but also a Romanic language. They have, however, overlooked the fact that

the *grammar* is not mixed or borrowed, but is altogether English.

We must recollect that in ordinary conversation our vocabulary is limited, and that we do not employ more than from three to five thousand words, while our best writers make use of about twice that number.

Now it is possible to carry on conversation, and write numerous sentences, without employing any borrowed terms; but if we endeavour to speak or write without making use of the native element (grammar or vocabulary), we shall find that such a thing is impossible. In our talk, in the works of our greatest writers, the English element greatly preponderates.

43. It will be interesting as well as useful to be able to distinguish the English or Low German elements from the Romanic terms.

## Pure English are—

- I. Demonstrative adjectives (a, the, this); pronouns (personal, relative, demonstrative, &c.); numerals.
  - 2. All auxiliary and defective verbs.
  - 3. Prepositions and conjunctions.
  - 4. Nouns forming their plural by change of vowel.
  - 5. Verbs forming their past tense by change of vowel.
  - 6. Adjectives forming their degrees of comparison irregularly.
- II. I. Grammatical inflexions, as-
  - (a) Plural suffixes (-s and -en) and ending of possessive case.
  - (b) Verbal inflexions of present and past tenses, of active and passive participles.
  - (c) Suffixes denoting degrees of comparison.

## III. I. Numerous suffixes-

- (a) Of Nouns, as -hood, -ship, -dom, -th (-t), -ness, -ing -ling, -kin, -ock.
- (b) Of Adjectives, as -ful, -ly, -en, -ish, -some, -ward.
- (c) Of Verbs, as -en.
- 2. Numerous prefixes, as a, al, be, for, ful, on, over, out, under.

Most monosyllabic words.

The names of the elements and their changes, of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily actions and posture, the commonest animals, the words used in earliest childhood, the ordinary terms of traffic, the constituent words in proverbs, the designation of kindred, the simpler emotions of the mind, terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective, and anger, are for the most part unborrowed.<sup>1</sup>

## Of English Origin.

- I. Heaven, sky, welkin, sun, moon, star, thunder, lightning, fire, weather, wind, storm, blast, cold, frost, heat, warmth, cloud, dew, hail, snow, ice, rime, rain, hoarfrost, sleet, time, tide, year, month, day, night, light, darkness, twilight, dawn, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, winter, spring, summer, harvest.
- II. World, earth, land, hill, dale, ground, bottom, height, water, sea, stream, flood, ebb, burn, well, spring, wave, waterfall, island.

## Of Romanic Origin.

Firmament, meteor, planet, comet, air, atmosphere, season, autumn, hour, minute.

Mountain, valley, river, rivulet, torrent, cascade, fountain, undulation.

III. Mould, sand, loam, clay, stone, gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, quicksilver.

IV. Field, heath, wood, thicket, grove, tree, alder, ash, beech, birch, elm, fir, oak, lime, willow, yew, apple, pear, plum, berry, crop, corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, acorn, sloe, bramble, nut, flax, grass, weed, leck, wort, moss, reed, ivy, clover, flax, bean, daisy, foxglove, honeysuckle, bloom, blossom, root, stem, stalk, leaf, twig, sprig, spray, rod, bow, sprout, rind, bark, haulm, hay, straw, ear, cluster, seed, chaff.

V. Hare, roe, hart, deer, fox, wolf, boar, marten, cat, rat, mouse, dog, hound, bitch, ape, ass, horse, mare, nag, cow, ox, bull, calf, neat, sheep, buck, ram, swine, sow, farrow, goat, mole.

VI. Bird, fowl, hawk, raven, rook, crow, stork, bittern, crane, glede, swan, owl, lapwing, starling, lark, nightingale, throstle, swallow, dove, finch, sparrow, snipe, wren, goose, duck, hen, gander, drake.

VII. Fish, whale, shark, eel, herring, lobster, otter, cockle.

VIII. Worm, adder, snake, bee, wasp, fly, midge, hornet, gnat, drone, humble-bee, beetle, chafer, spider, grasshopper, louse, flea, moth, butterfly, ant, maggot. frog, toad, tadpole.

Of Romanic Origin.

Bronze, mercury, names of precious stones.

Forest, poplar, pine, fruit, cherry, apricot, juice, grape, grain, onion, carrot, cabbage, pea, flower, pansy, violet, lily, tulip, trunk, branch, &c.

Animal, beast, squirrel, lion, tiger, mule, elephant, &c.

Eagle, falcon, heron, ostrich, vulture, mavis, pigeon.

Salmon, sturgeon, lamprey, trout.

Serpent, lizard, alligator.

IX. Man, woman, body, flesh, bone, soul, ghost, mind, blood, gore, sweat, limb, head, brain, skull, eye, brow, ear, mouth, lip, nose, chin, cheek, forehead, tongue, tooth, neck, throat, shoulder, arm, elbow, hand, foot, fist, finger, toe, thumb, nail, wrist, ankle, hough, sole, shank, shin, leg, knee, hip, thigh, side, rib, back, womb, belly, navel, breast, bosom, barm, lap, liver, maw, sinew, skin, fell, hair, lock, beard, whiskers.

X. Horn, neb, snout, beak, tail, mane, udder, claw, hoof, comb, fleece, wool, feather, bristle, down, wing.

XI. House, yard, hall, church, room, wall, wainscot, beam, gable, floor, roof, staple, door, gate, stair, threshold, window, shelf, hearth, fireside, stove, oven, stool, bench, bed, stall, bin, crib, loft, kitchen, tub, can, mug, loom, cup, vat, ewer, kettle, trough, ton, dish, board, spoon, knife, cloth, knocker, bell, handle, watch, clock, looking-glass, hardware, tile.

XII. Plough, share, furrow, rake, harrow, sickle, scythe, sheaf, barn, flail, waggon, wain, cart, wheel, spoke, nave, yoke.

XIII. Weeds, cloth, shirt, skirt, smock, sack, sleeve, coat, belt, girdle, band, clasp, hose, breeches, drawers, shoe, glove, hood, hat, stockings, ring, pin, needle, weapon, sword, hilt, blade, sheath, axe, spear, dart, shaft, arrow, bow, shield, helm, saddle, bridle, stirrup, halter

Of Romanic Origin,

Corpse, spirit, perspiration countenance, stature, figure, palate, stomach, moustache, palm, vein, artery, intestines, nerves.

Palace, temple, chapel, tabernacle, tent, chamber, cabinet, parlour, closet, chimney, ceiling, front, battlement, pinnacle, tower, lattice, table, chair, stable, garret, cellar, furniture, utensils, goblet, chalice, cauldron fork, nap (-kin), plate, carpet, tapestry, mirror, curtain, cutlery.

Coulter.

Garment, lace, buckle, pocket, trousers, dress, robe, costume, pall, boot, cap, bonnet, veil, button, target, gauntlet, mail, harness, arms.

XIV. Meat, food, fodder, meal, dough, bread, loaf, crumb, cake, milk, honey, tallow, flesh, ham, drink, wine, beer, ale.

XV. Ship, keel, boat, wherry, hulk, fleet, float, raft, stern, stem, board, deck, helm, rudder, oar, sail, mast.

XVI. Father, mother, sister. brother, son, daughter, husband, wife, bride, godfather, stepmother.

XVII. Trade, business, chapman, bootseller, fishmonger, &c.; pedlar, hosier, shoemaker, &c. ; outfitter, weaver; baker, cooper, cartwright, fiddler, thatcher, seamstress, smith, goldsmith, blacksmith, fuller, tanner, sailor, miller, cook, skinner, glover, fisherman, sawyer, groom, workman, player, wright.

XVIII, King, queen, earl, lord, lady, knight, alderman, sheriff, beadle, steward

XIX. Kingdom, shire, folk, hundred, riding, wardmote, hustings.

Of Romanic Origin.

Victuals, provender, flour, lard, grease, butter, cheese, veal, pork, mutton, roast, boiled, broiled, fry, bacon, toast, sausage, pie, soup, spirits.

Vessel, galley, prow.

Family, grand (-father), uncle, aunt, ancestor, spouse, consort, parent, tutor, pupil, cousin, relation, papa, mamma, niece, nephew, spouse.

Traffic. commerce, industry, mechanic, merchant, principal, partner, clerk, apprentice, potter, draper, actor, laundress, chandler, mariner, barber. vintner, mason, cutler, poulterer, painter, plumber, plasterer, carpenter, mercer, hostler, banker, servant, journey(man), labourer.

Title, dignity, duke, marquis, viscount, baron, baronet, count, squire, master (mister), chancellor, secretary, treasurer, councillor, chamberlain, peer, ambassador, captain, major, colonel. lieutenant, general, ensign, cornet, sergeant, officer, herald, mayor, bailiff, engineer, professor, &c.

Court, state, administration, constitution, people, suite, treaty, union, cabinet, minister, successor, heir, sovereign, renunciation, abdication. minion, reign, government, council, royal, loyal, emperor, audience, state, parliament, commons, chambers, signor, party, deputy, member, peace, war, inhabitant, subject, navy, army, treasurer.

Of Romanic Origin.

XX. White, yellow, red, black, blue, brown, grey, green.

Colour, purple, scarlet, vermilion, violet, orange, sable, &c.

XXI. Fiddle, harp, drum.

Lyre, bass, flute, lute, organ, pipe, violin, &c.

XXII. All words relating to art, except singing and drawing, are of Romanic origin.

XXIII. Familiar actions, feelings, qualities, are for the most part unborrowed.

Of English Origin.

Of Romanic Origin,

Talk, answer, behave, bluster, gather, grasp, grapple, hear, hark, listen, hinder, walk, limp, run, leap, &c., &c.

Converse, respond, reply, impel, prevent, direct, ascend, traverse, &c.

XXIV. The names of special action, qualities, &c., are mostly pure English; general terms are Latin, as—

Warmth, flurry, mildness, heat, wrath, &c.

Impression, sensation, emotion, disposition, temper, passion, &c.

Even, smooth, crooked, high, brittle, narrow, &c.

Equal, level, curved, prominent, fragile, &c.

44. The Romanic element has provided us with a large number of synonymous terms by which our language is greatly enriched, as—

benediction	and	blessing
commence	,,	begin
branch	,,	bough
flour	,,	meal
member	,,	limb
gain	,,	win
desire	,,	wish
purchase	,,	buy
gentle	,,	mild
terror	,,	dread
sentiment	,,	feeling
labour	,,	work
flower	<b>1 5</b> ·	bloom
amiable	,,	friendly
cordial	**	hearty

45. Sometimes we find English and Romanic elements compounded. These are termed Hybrids.

## I. Pure English words with Romanic suffixes :-

Ance. Hindr-ance, further-ance, forbear-ance.

Age. Bond-age, cart-age, pound-age, stow-age, tonn-age.

Ment. Forbode-ment, endear-ment, atone-ment, wonder-ment.

Ry. Midwife-ry, knave-ry, &c.

Ity. Odd-ity.

Let. Stream-let, smick-et.

Ess. Godd-ess, shepherd-ess, huntr-ess, songstr-ess.

Able Eat-able, laugh-able, read-able, unmistake-able.

Ous. Burden-ous, wondr-ous,

Ative. Talk-ative.

## II. Romanic words with English endings :-

Ness. Immense-ness, factious-ness, savage-ness, with numerous others formed from adjectives in ful, as merci-ful-ness, use-ful-ness, &c.

Dom. Duke-dom, martyr-dom.

Hood. False-hood.

Rick. Bishop-rick.

Ship. Apprentice-ship, sureti-ship.

Kin. Nap-kin.

Less. Use-less, grace-less, harm-less, and many others.

Full. Use-ful, grate-ful, bounti-ful, merci-ful, and numerous others.

Some. Quarrel-some, cumber-some, venture-some, humour-some.

Ish. Fool-ish, fever-ish, brut-ish, slav-ish.

Ly. Round-ly, rude-ly, savage-ly, and innumerable others.

## III. English words with Romanic prefixes:-

En, Em. En-dear, en-thral, em-bolden.

Dis. Dis-belief, dis-burden.

Re. Re-kindle, re-light, re-take, re-seat.

## IV. Romanic words with English prefixes :-

Be. Be-siege, be-cause, be-powder.

Under. Under-value, under-act, under-price.

Un. Un-stable, un-fortunate, and very many others.

Over. Over-turn, over-value, over-rate, over-curious.

For. For-pass, for-fend.

After. After-piece, after-pains.

Out. Out-prize, out-faced.

Up. Up-train.

## CHAPTER V

### OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS

46. BEFORE the Norman Conquest we find evidence of two dialects, a Southern and a Northern.

The Southern was the literary language, and had an extensive literature; in it are written the best of our oldest English works. The grammar of this dialect is exceedingly uniform, and the vocabulary contains no admixture of Danish terms.

The Northern dialect possesses a very scanty literature. An examination of existing specimens shows us, (1) that this dialect had grammatical inflexions and words unknown to the Southern dialect; (2) that the number of Danish terms are very few.

Some writers think that these differences are due to the original Teutonic tribes that colonized the north and north-east of England. As these tribes are designated by old writers Angles, in contra-distinction to the Jutes and Saxons, this dialect is called Anglian.

The chief points of grammatical difference between the Northern and Southern dialects are:—

(1) The loss of n in the infinitive ending of verbs, as,

N. cuoeda = S. cwedan, to say. N. drinc-a = S. drinc-an, to drink.

(2) The first person singular indicative ends in u or o instead of e, as

> N. Ic getréow-u = S. getréow-e, I believe, trow. N. Ic drinc-o = S. drinc-e, I drink.

(3) The second person singular present indicative often ends in -s rather than -st, and we find it in the second person singular preterite indicative of weak verbs-

N. Su geplantad-es = S. geplanted-est, thou hast planted.

(4) The third person sing, frequently ends in s instead of th.

N. he generices = S. genericed, he works. N. he onswees = S. onsweed, he denies.

(5) The third plural present indicative and the second person plural imperative often have -s instead of -th.

N. hia onfoas = S. hi onfoa $\delta$ , they receive.

(6) The occasional omission of ge before the passive participle.

N. hered = S, eeherod, praised. N. bledsed = S, gebletsod, blessed.

(7) Occasional use of active participle in -and instead of -end.

N. drincande = S, drincende, drinking.

(8) The use of aren for syndon or synd = are (in all persons of the plural).

In nouns we find much irregularity as compared with the Southern dialect.

(9) Plurals end in a, u, o, or e, instead of -an.1

N. heorta = S. heortan, hearts.

N. witeg-u = S. witegan, prophets.

N. égo = S. éagan, eyes. N. nome = S. naman, names.

(10) -es is sometimes found instead of -e as the genitive suffix of feminine nouns.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the Southern dialect words belonging to this declension had \* in the oblique cases of the singular, but this is dropped in the Northern dialect.

- (11) To and To are sometimes found for so (masc.) and soo (fem.] = the.
- (12) The plural article  $\delta i$  sometimes occurs for the demonstrative pronoun hi = they.

We see that 10, 11, 12, are really changes towards modern English.

- 47. After the Norman Conquest dialects become much more marked, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we are able to distinguish three great varieties of English.
  - (1) The Northern dialect, which was spoken in Northumberland, Durham, and Yorkshire, and in the Lowlands of Scotland.
  - (2) The Midland dialect, spoken in the whole of the Midland shires, in the East Anglian counties, and in the counties to the west of the Pennine chain; that is, in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Shropshire.
  - (3) The Southern dialect, spoken in all the counties south of the Thames; in Somersetshire, Gloucestershire, and in parts of Herefordshire and Worcestershire.

It is not difficult to distinguish these dialects from one another on account of their grammatical differences.

The most convenient test is the inflexion of the verb in the present plural indicative.

(4) The Southern dialect employs -cth, the Midland -cn, as the inflection for all forms of the plural present indicative.

The Northern dialect uses neither of these forms, but substitutes -cs for -eth or -en.

The Northern dialect has its imperative plural in -es; the Southern and Midland dialects, in -eth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> We do not find -s often in the first person. Often all inflexions are dropped in the plural, as in modern English.

### EXAMPLES.

Plural Pres. Up-steghes (up-go) hilles and feldes down-gas (down-go). i pir (these) kinges rides for p pair rade (road). And gret fisches etes the smale (small). Now we wyn and now we tyn (lose). i

Imp. Oppenes (open) your yates (gates) wide.<sup>5</sup>
Gais (go) he said, and spirs (inquire) welle gern (carnestly).
Cums (come) again and tels (tell) me.<sup>6</sup>

Plural Pres. We habbe (have) the maystry. 7

Childern leue Freynsch and construe and lurne an

(in) Englysch. 8

Imp. Lusteb (listeneth) . . . lateb (let) me speke. 9
Adraweb zoure (your) suerdes (swords). 10

Plural Pres. Loverd we ar-en (are) bope pine. 11
Loverd we sholen be wel fede. 12
And bei hat fallen on be erbe, dyen anon. 13

Imp. Dob awei 50ure 5atis (gates) and beb rered up 3ee everlastende 5atis. 14

The Midland dialect, being widely diffused, had various local forms. The most marked of these are: (1) the Eastern Midland, spoken in Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Suffolk; (2) the West Midland, spoken in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Cheshire, Shropshire.

The East Midland conjugated its verb in the present singular indicative like the Southern dialect—

1st pers. hop-e
2nd ,, hope-st thou hopest
3rd ,, hop-eth he hopes.

The West Midland, like the Northern, conjugated its verb as follows:—

```
1 Specimens of Early English, II. p. 32.
2 Ib. p. 71. 3 Ib. p. 90. 4 Ib. p. 19. 5 Ib. p. 29.
6 Ib. p. 72. 7 Ib. p. 245. 8 Ib. p. 241. 9 Ib. I. p. 190.
10 Ib. II. p. 6. 11 Ib. I. p. 231. 12 Ib. 13 Ib. II. p. 171.
```

1st pers. hope. 1 2nd ,, hop-es. 3rd ,, hop-es.

- 48. There are many other points in which these dialects differed from one another.
  - (i.) The Southern was fond, as it still is, of using v where the other dialects had f, as vo = fa = foe; vinger = finger. In the old Kentish of the fourteenth century we find z for s: as zinge = to sing; zede = said.
  - (ii.) It preferred the palatal ch to the guttural k in many words,<sup>2</sup> as—

```
riche = Northern rike = kingdom

zech = ,, sek = sack.

crouche = ,, croke = cross.
```

(iii.) It often had  $\bar{a}$  and u where the Northern dialect had  $\bar{a}$  and i, as—

```
\begin{array}{lll} hul & = & \text{Northern} & hil. \\ put & = & ,, & pit. \\ b\bar{o}n & = & ,, & b\bar{a}n = \text{bone.} \\ l\bar{o}f & = & ,, & l\bar{a}f = \text{loaf.} \\ \bar{o}n \text{ (oon)} & ,, & \bar{a}n = \text{one.} \end{array}
```

In its inflexions the Southern was still more distinctly marked.

- (a) It preserved a large number of nouns with plurals in n, as sterren = stars, eyren = eggs, kun = kine, &c. The Northern dialect had only about four of these plurals, namely, eghen (=eyes), hosen, oxen, and schoon = (shoes).
- (b) It kept up the genitive of feminine nouns in  $e,^3$  while the Northern dialect employed only the masculine suffix, s, as in modern English.
- (c) Genitive plurals in -enc<sup>4</sup> are very common, but do not occur at all, in the Northern dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Northern dialect has s occasionally in the first person.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This softening serves to explain many of the double forms in modern English, as ditch and dike, church and kirk, bake and batch, &c.

Soule fode = soul's food; senne nede = sin's need.

<sup>4</sup> apostlene fet = apostles' feet; Gywene will = Jews' will.

- (d) Adjectives and demonstrative pronouns retained many of the older inflections, and the definite article was inflected. Many pronominal forms were employed in the South that never existed in the North, as ha (a) = he; is = them; is = her.
- (e) Where the older language had infinitives ending in -an and -ian, the Southern dialect had -en or -e and -ie. The Northern dialect had scarcely a trace of this inflection.
- (f) Active participles ended in -inde (ynde); in the North in -ande (and),2
- (g) Passive participles retained the old prefix ge (softened down to i or  $y^3$ ); in the North it was never used.
- (h) It had many verbal inflections that were unknown to the Northern dialect, as -st (present and past tenses), -cn (plural past indicative), -e (second person plural past indicative of strong verbs).
- (1) The Northern dialect had many plural forms of nouns that were wholly unknown to the Southern dialect, as—Brether = brethren, childer = children, ky = cows (kine), hend = hands.
- (2) That was used as a demonstrative as at present, without reference to gender. In the Southern dialect that was often the neuter of the definite article.
- (3) Same (as the same, this same) was used instead of the Southern thilke, modern thuck, thick, or thucky.
- (4) Thir, ther (the plural of the Scandinavian article), the these, was often used.
- (5) The pronominal forms were very different. Thus instead of the southern heo (hi, hii) = she, this dialect used sco, scho, the older form of our she. It rejected the old plural pronouns of the third person, and substituted the plural article, as thai, thair, thaim (tham), instead of hi (heo, hii) heore (here), heom (hem); ures, yhoures, thairs, quite common then as now, were unknown in the South.
- (6) At=to was used as a sign of the infinitive mood; sal and suld=schal and schuld.

<sup>1</sup> Lovie (=lufian), to love; hatie (=hatian) to hate; tellen, telle=to tell.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> singinde, N. singand = singing.

<sup>3</sup> y-broke = ybroken = broken; i-fare = ifaren = gone.

as-

(7) The Northern dialect had numerous Scandinavian forms,

```
hethen, hence
                 = Southern henne
thethen, thence =
whethen, whence =
                              rohennes
                        ٠,
sum
                        ,,
fra
                             fram = from
                        ٠,
til
                 =
                              to
bv
                              tun = town
minne
                              lesse = less
                 __
                        ,,
plogh
                              sulz = plough
                 ==
nefe (neve)
                              fust = fist
                 ==
sterne
                 ---
                              sterre = star
bygg
                 ==
                              bere = barley
                        ,,
low
                              lev = flame
                 . ...
                        ,,
werre
                 =
                              wvrse = worse
                        ,,
slik
                              szwich = such
                 _
                        ,,
gar
                 -
                              do
                        ,,
                                   &c.
&c.
                 &c.
```

49. The East Midland dialect had one peculiarity that has not been found in other dialects, namely, the coalescence of pronouns with verbs, and even with pronouns,

```
caldes = calde +es = called them
dedes = dcde +es = put them
hes = he +es = he + them
get = ge +it = she + it
mes = me, men + es = one (indefinite pronoun, cf. Fr. on) + them.
```

The West Midland dialect had its peculiarities, as ho = she; hit = its; shyn = shuln (plural).

50. We must bear in mind that the Midland dialect was the speech that was most widely spread, and, as we might expect, would be the one that would gradually take the lead in becoming the standard language. There were, as we have seen, many varieties of the Midland dialect, but by far the most important of these was the East Midland. As early as the beginning of the thirteenth century it began to be cultivated as a literary dialect, and had then thrown off most of the older inflexions, so as to become, in respect

of inflexional forms and syntactical structure, as simple as our own.

In this dialect Wycliffe, Gower, and Chaucer wrote, as well as the older and well-known authors, Orm and Robert of Brunne. It was, however, Chaucer's influence that raised this dialect to the position of the standard language. In Chaucer's time this dialect was the language of the metropolis, and had probably found its way south of the Thames into Kent and Surrey.

At a later period the Southern dialect had so far retreated before it as to become *Western* rather than *Southern*; in fact, the latter designation was applied to the language which had become the standard one.

George Puttenham, writing in 1589, speaks of three dialects—the Northern, Western, and Southern. The Northern was that spoken north of the Trent; the Southern was that south of the Trent, which was also the language of the court, of the metropolis, and of the surrounding shires; the Western, as now, was confined to the counties of Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Wiltshire, &c.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;Our maker (poet) therefore at these dayes shall not follow Piers Plowman, nor Gower, nor Lydgate, nor yet Chaucer, for their language is now out of use with us; neither shall he take the termes of Northernmen, such as they use in dayly talke, whether they be noble men, or gentlemen, or of their best clarkes, all is a matter; nor in effect any speach used beyond the river of Trent, though no man can deny but that theirs is the purer English Saxon at this day, yet it is not so courtly nor so current as our Southerne English is, no more is the far Westerne man's speach: ye shall therefore take the usual speach of the Court, and that of London and the shires lying about London within lx myles, and not much above. I say not this but that in every shyre of England there be gentlemen and others that speake but specially write as good Southerne as we of Middlesex or Surrey do, but not the common people of every shire, to whom the gentlemen and also their learned clarkes do for the most part condescend, but herein we are already ruled by th' English dictionaries and other bookes written by learned men."

## CHAPTER VI

## PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

51. ALL living languages, in being handed down from one generation to another, undergo changes and modifications. These go on so gradually as to be almost imperceptible, and it is only by looking back to past periods that we become sensible that the language has changed. A language that possesses a literature is enabled to register the changes that are taking place. Now the English language possesses a most copious literature, which goes as far back as the end of the eighth century, so that it is possible to mark out with some distinctness different periods in the growth or history of our language.

# I. The English of the First Period.

- (a) The grammar of this period is *synthetic* or inflexional, while that of modern English is *analytical*.<sup>1</sup>
  - (b) The vocabulary contains few foreign elements.
- (c) The chief grammatical differences between the oldest English and the English of the present day are these:—

<sup>1</sup> Cp. O.E. drincan with "to drink."

- (1) Grammatical Gender.—As in Latin and Greek, gender is marked by the termination of the nominative, and also by other case endings. Substantives and adjectives have three genders—masculiue, feminine, and neuter.
- (2) Declensions of Substantives.—There were various declensions, and at least five cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative or instrumental), distinguished by various endings.
- (3) The *Definite Article* was inflected, and was also used both as a demonstrative and a relative pronoun.
- (4) Pronouns had a dual number.
- (5) The infinitive of *Verbs* ended in -an, the dative infinitive in -anne (-enne).
- (6) Only the dative infinitive was preceded by the preposi-
- (7) The present participle ended in -cnde.
- (8) The passive participle was preceded by the prefix ge-.
- (9) Active and passive participles were declined like adjectives.
- (10) In the present tense plural indicative the endings were, (1)
  -a\delta; (2) a\delta; (3) -a\delta.
- (11) In the present pl. subjunctive they were -on, -on, -on.1
- (12) In the preterite tense plural indicative the endings were -on (sometimes -an).
- (13) The second person singular in the preterite tense of weak verbs ended in -st, as lufode-st = thou loved-est; the cor responding suffix of strong verbs was -e, as—

dt-e, thou atest or didst eat. slep-e, thou slept-est.

- (14) The future tense was supplied by the present, and shall and will were not usually tense auxiliaries.
- (15) Prepositions governed various cases.

<sup>1 -</sup>en is an earlier form of this suffix.

# II. The English of the Second Period.

(A.D. 1100 to about 1250.)

52. Before the Norman Conquest the English language showed a tendency to substitute an analytical for a synthetical structure, and probably, had there been no Norman invasion, English would have arrived at the same simplification of its grammar as nearly every other nation of the Low German stock has done. The Danish invasion had already in some parts of the country produced this result; but the Norman invasion caused these changes, more or less inherent in all languages, to take place more rapidly and more generally.

The first change which took place affected the sounds, and this is to be traced in documents written about the beginning of the twelfth century, and constitutes the only important modification of the older language.

This change consisted in a general weakening of the terminations of words.

i. The older vowel endings, a, o, u, were reduced to e.

This change affected the oblique cases of nouns and adjectives as well as the nominative, so that the termination

an	became	en'		ra, ru	pecame	re.
as	12	es.	,	ena	,,	ene.
аð	,,	eб.		on	,,	en.
21772		$en.^1$		od, ode	••	ed, ede.

ii. C or k is often softened to ch, and g to y or w.

To make these changes clearer, we give-

(1) A portion of Ælfric's homily, "De Initio Creatura, in the English of the first period; (2) the same in the English of the beginning of the twelfth century; and (3 and 4) the same a few years later.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> n sometimes disappears.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Examples 3 and 4 were probably written in different parts of England before 1150.

- 1. An anginn is ealra dinga, that is God Ælmihtig.
- 2. An anginn is ealra þingen, þæt is God Ælmihtig.
- 3. An angin is alræ þingæ, þæt is God almihtiz.
- 4.
- 5. One beginning is there of all things, that is God Almighty.
- I. He is ordfruma and ende: he is ordfruma forði de he wæs
- 2. He is ordfruma and ande: he is ordfrume for pan pe he was
- 3. He is ordfruma and ende: he is ordfrume for hi he he was afre.
- 4. [He is] hordfruma and ænde: he is ord for he wes efre.
- 5. He is beginning and end: he is beginning, for-that that he was ever.
- He is ende bútan ælcere geendunge, for öan þe he bið æfre unge-endod.
- 2. He is ændæ abuten ælcere geændunge, for þan þe he byþ æfre unge-ændod.
- He is ende buton alcre endunge, for pan pe he bip afre unge-endod.
- 4. He is ænde buton ælcere ziendunze. . . . . . .
- He is end without any ending, for-that that he is ever unended.
- 1. He is ealra cyninga cyning, and ealra hláforda hláford.
- 2. He is ealra kingene kinge, and ealra hlaforde hlaford.
- 3. He is alræ kynge kyng, and alre lafordæ laford.
- 4. Heo is alra kingene king, and alra hlaforden hlaford.
- 5. He is of all kings King, and of all lords Lord.
- 1. He hylt mid his mihte heofanas and eordan and ealle.
- 2. He healt mid his mihte heofonas and eordan and ealle.
- 3. He halt mid his mihte heofenæs and eorpan and alle.
- 4. He halt mid his mihte hefene and corpe and alle.
- 5. He holdeth with his might heavens and earth and all.
- 1. Gesceafta bútan geswince.
- 2. Gesceafte [buten] geswynce.
- 3. Isceafte buton swinke.
- 4. zesceafte buton zeswince.
- 5. Creatures without swink (toil).

The next example is given, (1) in the Oldest English; (2) in that of 1100; (3) in that of about 1150.

- 1. Twelf undéawas syndon on dyssere worulde to hearme
- 2. Twelf unbeawes synden on byssen wurlde to hearme.
- 3. Twelf unbeawes beob on bissere weorlde to hermen.
- 4. Twelve vices are there in this world for harm.
- 1. Eallum mannum gif hí móton rícsian and hí alecgað.
- 2. Eallen mannen gyf heo moten rixigen and heo alecgeo.
- 3. Alle monnen 3if hi moten rixian and hi alleggab.
- 4. To all men, if they might hold sway, and they put down.
- Rihtwisnysse and þone geléafan amyrrað and mancynn gebringað.
- 2. Rihtwisnysse and hone geleafe amerreh and mancynn gebringeh.
- 3. Rihtwisnesse and pene ileafan amerrap and moncun bringep.
- 4. Righteousness and (the) belief mar, and mankind bring.
- I. Gif hi móton to helle.
- 2. Gyf heo moten to helle.
- 3. 3if hi motan to helle.
- 4. If they might to hell.

From 1150 to 1200 numerous grammatical changes took place, the most important of which were—

- The indefinite article an (a) is developed out of the numeral.
   It is frequently inflected.
- 2. The definite article becomes pe, peo, pe, (pat), instead of se, seo, pat.
  - It frequently drops the older inflexions, especially in the feminine.

We find be often used as a plural instead of ba or bo.

- Nominative plural of nouns end in -en (or e) instead of a or u, thus conforming to plurals of the n declension.
- Plurals in -es sometimes take the place of those in -en (-an), the genitive plural ends in -ene or -e, and occasionally

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Traces of se and si are found in the Kentish dialect of the thirteenth century.

- 5. The dative plural (originally -um) becomes e and en.
- 6. Some confusion is seen in the gender of nouns.
- 7. Adjectives show a tendency to drop certain case endings :-
  - (1) The genitive singular masculine of the indefinite declension.
  - (2) The genitive and dative feminine of the indefinite declension.
  - (3) The plural -en of the definite declension frequently
- 8. The dual forms are still in use, but less frequently employed.

  The dative *him*, *hem*, are used instead of the accusative.
- New pronominal forms come into use, as ha=he, she, they;
   is=her; is=them; me=one.
- 10. The n in min, thin, are often dropped before consonants, but retained in the plural and oblique cases.
- 11. The infinitive of verbs frequently drops the final n, as *smelle* = *smellen*, to smell; *herie* = *herien*, to praise. To is sometimes used before infinitives.
- 12. The gerundial or dative infinitive ends often in -en or -e instead of -enne (-anne).
- 13. The *n* of the passive participle is often dropped, as *icume* = *icumen* = come.
- 14. The present participle ends in -inde, and this form is frequently used for the gerundial infinitive, as to swiminde = to swimene = to swim.

The above remarks apply chiefly to the Southern dialect. In the other dialects of this period (East and West Midland) we find even a greater simplification of the grammar. Thus to take the Ormulum (East Midland) we find the following important changes:—

- (a) The definite article is used as at present, and *that* is employed as a demonstrative irrespective of gender.
- (b) Gender of substantives is almost the same as in modern English.
- (c) -es is used as the ordinary sign of the plural.
- (d) es, singular and plural, has become the ordinary suffix of the, genitive case.

- (e) Adjectives, as in Chaucer's time, have a final e for the older inflexions: this e being chiefly used, (1) as a sign of the plural,
  (2) to distinguish the definite form of the adjective.
- (f) The forms they, theirs, come into use.
- (g) Passive participles drop the prefix i (ge), as cumen for icumen.
- (h) The plural of the present indicative ends in -en instead of eo.
- (i) Arn = arc, for  $bco\delta$ .

In an English work written before 1250, containing many forms belonging to the West Midland dialect, we find—

- (a) Articles and nouns and adjectives as in the Ormulum.
- (b) The pronoun thai instead of hi or heo = they; I for Ic or Ich.
- (c) Passive participles frequently omit the prefix i.
- (d) Active participles end in -ande instead of -inde.
- (e) Verbs are conjugated in the indicative present as follows:-

Singular.	Plural.
(I) luv-e	(1) luv-en
(2) luv-es	(2) luv-en
(3) luv-es	(3) luv-en

(f) Strong and weak verbs are conjugated after the following manner in the preterite tense:—

	Singular.	Plural.
Weak.	$ \begin{cases} (1) \text{ makede} \\ (2) \text{ makedes} \\ (3) \text{ makede} \end{cases} $	makeden = made makeden ,, makeden ,,
Strong.	{ (1) schop (2) schop (3) schop	schop-en = created, shaped schop-en ,, ,, schop-en ,, ,,

Here we see two important changes: (1) -es for -est in second person of weak verbs; and (2) the dropping of e in strong verbs.

From 1150 to 1250 the influence of Norman-French begins to exhibit itself in the *vocabulary* of the English language.

# III. The English of the Third Period.

## (A.D. 1250-1350.)

- 53. (1) Old English ea and eo become respectively a and e; arm (poor), hard, fallen (fall); heven (O.E. heofon), herte (O.E. heorte, heart).
  - (2) éa and éo become ë; ēge (eye), dēth (death), dēp (deep), prēst (priest), sēn (seen).
  - (3) The vowels a, e, o become long in open syllables; hāre (hare), tāle (tale), āle (ale); ēten (eat), bēren (bear); fōre (O.E. foran), hōpe (O.E. tóhopa).
  - (4) The article still preserves some of the older inflexions, as:

    (1) the genitive singular feminine; (2) the accusative masculine; (3) the plural bo (the nominative being used with all cases of nouns).
  - (5) Nouns exhibit much confusion in gender—words that were once masculine or feminine becoming neuter.
  - (6) Plurals in -en and -es often used indiscriminately.
  - (7) The genitive -es becomes more general, and begins to take the place—(1) of the older -en and -e (in old masculine and neuter nouns; and (2) of -e in feminine nouns.
  - (8) Dual forms of the personal pronouns dropped out of use shortly before 1300.
  - (9) A final e used, (1) for the sign of plural of adjectives; and (2) for distinguishing between the definite and indefinite declensions.
  - (10) The gerundial infinitive terminates in -en and -e.
  - (11) The ordinary infinitive takes to before it.
  - (12) Some few strong verbs become weak. Present participles in -inge begin to appear about 1300.

French words become now more common, especially towards the end of this period.

In ten pages of Robert of Gloucester, Marsh has calculated that four per cent. of the vocabulary is Norman-French.

## IV. The English of the Fourth Period.

54. In this period the Midland dialect has become the prevailing one. Northern and Southern words still retain their own peculiarities.

The following are the chief points to be noted:-

- 1. The plural article, po = the, those, is still often used.
- 2. The -es in plural and genitive case of substantives is mostly a separate syllable.
- 3. The pronouns are:

I for the older Ic (Ich sometimes occurs).

sche for the older hev.

him, them, whom, used as datives and accusatives.

oures, youres, heres, in common use for oure, youre, here.

bei (they) in general use instead of hi (heo).

here = their.

hem = them.

4. The plurals of verbs in the present and past indicative end -en or -e.

The imperative plural ends in -e.

-est often used as the inflection of the second person singular preterite of strong and weak verbs.

The infinitive mood ends in -en or e; but the inflexion is often lost towards the end of the fourteenth century.

The present participle ends usually in -ing (inge).

The passive participle of strong verbs ends in -en or -e.

# The termination -e is an important one.

 It represents an older vowel ending, as nam-e = nam-a, sun-e = sun-u; or the termination -an, -en, as withute = with-utan.

- 2. It represents various inflexions, and is used-
  - (a) As a mark of the plural or definite adjective (adjectival e), as smalë fowles; the gretë see.
  - (b) As a mark of adverbs, as softë = softly. (Adverbial e.)
  - (c) As a mark of the infinitive mood, past tense of weak verbs and imperative mood. (Verbal e.)

Him thoughtë that his hertë wolde brekë. (Chaucer.)

Towards the end of this period the use of the final e becomes irregular and uncertain, and the Northern forms of the pronouns, *their*, *theirs*, *them*, come into use in the other dialects.

# V. The English of the Fifth Period.

(A.D. 1460 to present time.)

55. There are really two subdivisions of this period—

- (1) 1460 to 1520.
- (2) 1520 to present time.

From 1460 to 1520 there is a general dearth of great literary works, but there were two events in this period that greatly affected the language, especially its vocabulary—

- (1) The introduction of printing into England by Caxton.
- (2) The diffusion of classical literature.

For some peculiarities of Elizabethan English see Abbott's "Shakespearian Grammar."

### CHAPTER VII

### HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS

#### Vowels

56. In the early West-Saxon dialect of Old English we find the following vowel-system :—

```
Short vowels: a, \alpha, e, i, o, \alpha, u, y; ca, eo, ie.
Long vowels: \dot{\alpha}, \dot{\alpha}, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\delta}, \dot{\alpha}, \dot{\iota}, \dot{\gamma}; \dot{\epsilon}a, \dot{\epsilon}o, ie.
```

#### Instances :---

- a. faran (to fare), hara (hare); habban (to have), assa (ass).
- a. gras (grass), glas (glass).
- e. elm (elm), helpan (to help); bene (bench), drenean (drench).
- i. fisc (fish), his (his).
- o. hors (horse), frost; nosu (nose), gold.
- a. This sound, which soon became e, occurs only in the oldest English texts, e.g. ale (oil), axen (oxen).
- u. full, wulf (wolf); lufu (love), inst (lust).
- y. bysig (busy), fyllan (fill), gecynd (kind), flyht (flight).
- ea. eall (all), ealu (ale), sceal (shall).
- eo. eorde (earth), heofon (heaven), geoc (yoke).
- ic. ieldu (old age), giefan (to give).
- á. hálig (holy), stán (stone).
- d. dal (deal), sa (sea).
- !. wé (we), ge (ye).
- i. lif (life), wis (wise).
- 6. gós (goose), grówan (to grow)

- å. gås (geese), geråfa (reeve).
- i. hús (house), mús (mouse).
- éa. éast (east), néar (near).
- es, enéo (knee), tréo (tree).
- ić. hieran (hear), nied (need).
- 57. In Middle English, or rather in the later periods of Old English, the quantity of these vowels underwent the following changes.
  - (1) Short vowels were lengthened before ld, nd, rd.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
eald, Anglian áld	õld, ould	old
healdan , haldan	hölden, houlden	hold
feld	fēld, feeld	field
cild	cīld	child
gold	göld, goold, gould	gold
bindan	bīnden	bind
blind	blīnd	blind
bunden	būnden	bound
gesund	sünd, sound	sound
bord	boord, board	board
hord	hōrd	hoard

(2) The short vowels a, e, o, before a simple consonant followed by another vowel were lengthened. This change took place about the middle of the thirteenth century.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
faran	fären	to fare
hatian	häten	to hate
macian	māken	to make
hara	hāre	hare
alu	āle	ale
beran	bēren	to bear
stelan	stēlen	to steal
mete	mēte	, meat
bodian	bōdien	to bode
socian	sõken	to soak
brocen	bröken	broken
open	ōpen	open

To this rule there are exceptions.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
manig	mani	many
hamor	hamer	hammer
sadol	sadel	saddle
pening	peni	penny
fetor	feter	fetter
bodig	bodi	body
copor	coper	copper

(3) On the other hand, long vowels were shortened before two consonants, except before ld, nd, rd, st. This, which began in Middle English and was completed in Modern English, explains the short vowels in the preterite tense and past participle of such weak verbs as keep, sleep, hear, &c., whose root-vowels are long in the present tense.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
kédde (preterite from lédan)	ledde	led
sprædde (infinitive sprædan)	spradde	spread
kéned p. p. (infinitive lénan)	lened	lent
měned (infinitive ménan)	mened	meant
wisdóm	wisdom	wisdom (compare wise)
hús-bónda	husbonde	husband (compare house)
hús-þing	husting	hustings

In Modern English long vowels were shortened in many words.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
wát	weet	wet
séoc	sēk, sīke	sick
stíf	stī <b>f</b>	stiff
bósm	bōscmm	bosom
bróðor	brōber	brother
módor	möder	mother
flód	flöd	flood
óðer	ōþer	other
stód	stöd	stood

# Changes in Quality of Vowels.

58. We will first consider the changes of vowels effected by neighbouring sounds.

A vowel in the former syllable of a word sometimes undergoes a change owing to the influence of a following vowel; this is called *Vowel Mutation*.

In Old English (though not in all dialects) a became ea before u(o), and e became eo in the same way. In Middle English these ea and eo appear again as a and e.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ealu	ale	ale
fealu	falwe	fallow
geolu	gelwe heffne	yellow
ĥeofon	heffne	heaven
seofon	sefen	seven

The most important mutations in Old English as well as in other Teutonic languages are those effected by i and i on preceding vowels. These mutations explain a great many facts in grammar, and in the formation of words; two instances will suffice for the present. The plurals men, feet, teeth, &c., are accounted for by the influence of i, which after it had caused the mutation of a, ó, in man, fót, tóð, altogether disappeared in Old English. In the prehistoric period of the Teutonic languages the plurals of these substantives were mann-iz, fot iz (compare Greek πόδ-ες, Latin ped-es), tanb-iz (becoming in prehistoric Old English tóbi); but both i and z were dropped (see above § 30), and the mutation of the root-vowel alone remained as a mark of the plural. Further, the root-vowels of the causal verbs such as drench, set, got their present shape through the influence of the j in the suffix -jo; thus Gothic dragkjan (literally "to make [somebody] drink") became in Old

English, drencan (drench), satjan ("to make [somebody] sit") became settan (set).

In the following we give an abstract of these mutations in Old English.

a became e; Gothic andeis (ei=l), O.E. ende (end); Gothic badi, O.E. bed (bed); Gothic batiza, O.E. betera (better); Gothic lagjan, O.E. leegan (to lay); Gothic satjan, O.E. settan (to set).

á became  $\acute{a}$ : ánig (from án, one) any; hálan (from hál, whole, sound) to heal.

o became a, later e: exen (from oxa), oxen; ele (from Latin oleum), oil.

δ became δ': déman (from dóm, doom), to deem; bέε (from bόε, book), books; fét (from fót, foot) feet.

u became y: Gothic fulljan (to make full), O.E. fyllan (to fill); Goth.c ubils, O.E. yfel (evil).

ú became ý: O.E. fýlan (from fúl, foul), to defile; mýs (from mús, mouse), mice.

ea and eo became ie, later y (in Anglian ea became e): ieldra, eldra (from eald, old), older; wierean (from weere, work), to work; hierde (which occurs also as heorde), shepherd.

da, éo became le: hiehra (comparative degree of héah, high), higher; biecnan (from béacen, beacon) to beckon; liehtan (from léoht, light), to shine; gesiéne (from geseón, to see), visible.

Note.—The diphthongs ie (from ea and eo) and ie (from  $\acute{e}a$  and  $\acute{e}o$ ) became in late West-Saxon y, i and  $\acute{y}$ ,  $\acute{t}$  respectively; in the other dialects they appear as e,  $\acute{e}$ .

Consonantal Mutation is the influence of a consonant on the vowel of a following or preceding syllable. Thus Teutonic scal (shall), gaf (gave) became in Old English sceal, geaf through the influence of c, g; Old English sweostor (sister), sweord (sword) appear also as swustor, sword under the influence of w, and Old English wifman became in Middle English womman, Modern English woman, in the same way.

The influence of consonants on preceding vowels is seen in what was called *vowel-fracture* (Brechung) by the older school of grammarians.

Under the influence of h, l, and r followed by consonants a became ea, and e became eo.

Gothic.	Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
ahtau	eahta	ahte, ehhte	eight
mahts	meaht	mihht	might
alls	eall	all	all
fallan	feallan	fallen	to fall
arms	earm	arrm	arm
barn	bearn	barn	barn (child)
raihts <sup>1</sup>	reoht "	riht	right
saihs <sup>1</sup>	seox <sup>2</sup>	sex	six
silba	seolf	self	self
airþa <sup>1</sup>	eorðe	erthe	earth
hairto <sup>1</sup>	heorte	herte	heart

59. We now proceed to deal with each vowel separately.

Short a.

Teutonic a underwent several changes in O.E. It became:—

- (1) æ before simple consonants, as in was (was), grass (grass)
- (2) ea before h, l, r, followed by consonants, as in eahta (eight), feallan (to fall), earm (arm).
  - (3) o before m, n as in lomb (lamb), mon (man).
- (4) e before a consonant originally followed by i, j, as in men (men), sendan (to send).

In Middle English a reappears in the first three cases, we find was, fallen, arm, lamb, man.<sup>3</sup>

ai = e.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The common form is rieht, reht; siex, sex.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> ea before h followed by a consonant had already in O.E. changed into ie, i, or e; hence we have in Middle English *ehte* (eight).

# In Modern English a again underwent several changes:—

- (1) It became again  $\alpha$  (as in O.E.) in such words as man, sat.
- (2) Before *l* not followed by a vowel it became *au* (phonetic symbol 3), as *fall*, *tall*.
- (3) It was rounded after w, qu, wh, when no back consonant followed, as in was, squalid, what.
  - (4) It was lengthened before s, th, as in glass, path.

Note.—In some words a derives from e before r as in far (O.E. feorran, Middle English ferre), star (O.E. steerra, Middle English sterre), marvel (French merveil). In the last century er seems in educated English to have been generally pronounced like ar; some traces of this remain, as sergeant, Hertford, clerk; but most words with er have been altered in sound by dialects in which e before r was pronounced as a mixed vowel.

### Long á

### O.E. á represents several Teutonic sounds:—

- (1) It is = d, as in sdwon (we saw), bldwan (to blow), sdwan (to sow).
- (2) It is = Teutonic ai, as in ágan (to owe), snáw (snow), ic wát (I know).
- (3) In Northumbrian and Mercian (not in West Saxon) it stands for short Teutonic a lengthened before ld, as in áld (old), hálda (to hold).

In Middle English all these d became long open  $\delta$  in the South and Midland, but remain d in the North. In the following lines which are taken from the *Cursor Mundi* (A.D. ab. 1300) the northern Göttingen MS. has d in all the words where the Midland Trinity MS. has o.

He hat laverd, bath gold and man.—He that lord bothe god and mon-1. 275.

All haldis he up fra dunefall.—Al holdeth he up fro dounfal—1. 280.

be hali gast comes of paim to.—The holy goost cometh of hem two—1. 308.

In Modern English this  $\delta$  first became close, and then a diphthong (ou).

Short e.

### Old English e derives from : —

- (1) Teutonic e, as in etan (to eat), beran (to bear); compare Latin edo, fero.
- (2) Mutation of a through a following i(j), as in men, settan (to set).

Both these e's, according to Kluge, were close, though this is still disputed.

Middle English develops another e by shortening long  $\acute{e}$  before two consonants, as in the preterites of certain weak verbs: kepte, slepte, wepte.

Note.—In Middle English as nowadays in dialects some words exhibit e along with the original and legitimate i:—hether (O.E. hider, hither), theder (O.E. thider, thither), wheder or whether (O.E. hwider, whither). On the other hand we find togither instead of together (O.E. togedre, Middle English togeddre)

Long é.

## O.E. close $\dot{\epsilon}$ has several sources:—

- (1) West Teutonic é, as in hér (here).
- (2) Mutation of  $\delta$ , as in fd (feet), gds (geese).
- (3) Mutation of ca, as in heran (to hear), fléman (to put to flight). This e is not found in West Saxon; in its stead we see y (le, i).
- (4) Short e lengthened before ld, as in feld (field),  $se\ell ld$  (shield),  $g\ell ldan$  (to yield); final short e lengthened under stress, as in  $m\ell$  (me),  $\delta\ell$  (thee),  $g\ell$  (ye).

In Middle English these e's, and also the close  $\bar{e}$  from  $\ell o$  (see p. 95), tend to become ee ( $\bar{i}$ , later  $i\bar{j}$ ), and in Modern English this is the rule.

Besides the close  $\ell$ , there is in Middle English the open  $\ell$ , which derives from different sources:—

- (1) O.E. éa, which answers to Teutonic au, as in rēd (red), O.E. éad, Gothic raups, German rot; dēth (death); O.E. déab, Gothic daupus, German tod.
- (2) O.E. e lengthened before a single consonant followed by a vowel, as in ēten (to eat), brēken (to break), spēken (to speak).

(3) O.E. & as mutation of a, as in hēthen (heathen), O.E. hæðen, dēlen (to deal), O.E. dælan; but O.E. & from West Teut. ā mostly became close ē, as in lēche (leech, physician), O.E. lêce.

These  $\bar{e}$ 's remain the same as in Middle English till the 17th century; about 1700 A.D. they partly become ee (ij).

#### Short i.

## O.E. i remained in Middle and Modern English:

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
bill	bil	bill (sword)
clif	clif	cliff
sittan	sitten	sit
swimman	swimmen	swim

*Note.*—i before ld, nd was lengthened.

Besides this O.E. *i* Middle English developed two others from two different sources:—

### (1) Northern and Midland mutation of u:

.,	Old English.	Northern.	South- Western.	South- Eastern.	Modern English.
Gothic kuni	cyn	kin	kun	ken	kin
Old Saxon kussian	cyssan dynt dysig	kissen dint disi	kussen dunt dusi	kesse dent desi	kiss dint dizz <b>y</b>
Gothic ubils	yfel	ibel (ivel)	uvel	evel	evil
Gothic fulljan	fyllan hyll	fillen hil(l)	fullen hul(l)	uelle hel	fill hill
Old Saxon sundia	synn	sinne	sunne	zenne	sin

(2) Shortening of long l(y) before two consonants:—O.E. wisdóm, Middle and Mod. E. wisdom; O.E. fylp, Middle E. filthe, Mod. E. filth.

## Long i.

O.E. *i* remained in Middle English, became a diphthong at the end of the 15th century, but had not its present sound (at) before the 17th century.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
bí	bī	by (German 'bei')
bítan	bīten	bite (German 'beissen')
líf	lif	life
tíd	tīd	tide

O.E. y (mutation of u) shows the same differences in the Middle English dialects as short y:—

	Old English.	Northern.	South- Western.	South- Eastern.	Modern English
Gothic brûbs	brýd	brīd	brūde	brēde	bride
Old Saxon fuir	fýr mýs prýte	fīr mīs prīde	für mü(i)s prüde	vēr mēs prēde	fire mice pride

Short o.

O.E. o has two sources:-

- (1) Teutonic o as in god, hors, folc.
- (2) Teutonic a before m, n, as in lomb (lamb), long, strong.

While the former o remained in Middle and Modern English the latter tended to become a again. Chaucer has still hond, lond, but in the 16th century this o survives only in a few words, as in among, long, strong.

Long ó.

O.E.  $\delta$  (close) remains in Middle English, but becomes  $\delta \theta$  (uw) in Modern English

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
dón	dōn	do
gós	gõs	goose
nón	nōn	noon
sóna	sõne	soon

Middle English open  $\bar{o}$ , which became close in early Modern English, and is now sounded ou, was partly from O.E. d (see p. 91) and partly from short o lengthened before a single consonant and a vowel, as open, over.

Short u.

O.E. u remained in Middle English and in the first century of Modern English. Thus u in buck, lust, must had the same sound as u in full, pull. But in the 17th century it got its present sound, while the old u survived in a few words, such as bull, bush, pull, put, probably under the influence of the preceding labial.

Long ú was preserved in Middle English, but became a diphthong in Modern English, as in house (O.E. hús), mouse (O.E. mús).

# Diphthongs.

The Old English diphthongs ea, eo as well as the long  $\acute{e}a$ ,  $\acute{e}o$  disappeared in Middle English; in their stead we find a, e,  $\acute{e}$ :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
ealu	ale	ale
feallan	fallen	fall
heard	hard	hard
heofon	hevene	heaven
eorthe	erthe	earth
béam	bēm	beam
léaf	lēf	leaf
scéaf	scēf (schēf)	sheaf
stréam	strēm	stream
cnéo	cnē	knee
gléo	glē	glee
tréo *	trē	tree

But new diphthongs arose out of the Old English sound groups ag, ag, eg, og; ág, áw, áw, éaw, éaw, éow, óg, ów.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ag became aw:-		
dagian hagu-þorn	dawen haweþorn	dawn hawthorn
lagu Vt-laga	lawe	law outlaw

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
æg became ai:—		
bræger.	brain	brain
dæg	dai	day
fægen	fain	fain
nægel	nail	nail
eg became ei, which, late		
leger	leir	lair
reg(e)n	rein	rain
segel	seil	sail
weg	wei	way
og became ow:-		
boga	bowe	bow
flogen	flowen	flown
$\acute{a}g$ and $\acute{a}w$ became $\bar{\rho}w$ (o)	pen $ar{o}$ ) in the Midl	land and South:
<b>a</b> gan	owen	owe
dág	dōwe	dough
bláwan	blöwen	blow
máwan .	möwen	mow
sáwan	sōwen	sow
&g became ei:—		
cág	keie	key
clág	clei	clay
græg	grei	gray, grey
dw and daw became çu, ¿		
la/wed	lēwedc	lewd
féawe	fēwe	few
• déaw	dēu	dew
héawan	hëwen	hew
éow became ēu, ēw (close	ē):—	
bléo <b>w</b>	blëu, blew	blew
(preterite from bláwan)		
cnéow	knēw	knew
(from cnáwan)		
néowe	nēw	new
tréowe	trēw	, true
qg and ow became ou, ow	(close $\bar{o}$ ):—	
bóg	bō <b>u</b>	bow
wógian	wöwen	woo
flówan	flöwen	flow
grówan	grõ <b>wen</b>	grow

These Middle English diphthongs developed in the following way:—

H

ai and ei which were kept apart in Middle English soon became very similar in sound, and in the 17th century both were pronounced like a in flame.

au did not get its present sound before the end of the 16th century.

 $\bar{e}u$  and  $\dot{e}u$  which were different sounds in Middle English became, in Modern English, first iu ( $\bar{e}$  being regularly changed into  $\bar{e}$ ), then ju, the stress at the same time shifting from e to u.

 $\delta u$  and  $\delta u$  were no longer distinguished in the 16th century, and in the 17th they both became  $\delta u$  as in  $g\delta$ ,  $n\delta$ .

The diphthong oi, which is of French origin and occurs, with a few exceptions, only in French words, was the same in Middle English as in our own time.

The following table shows the development of vowels from the Teutonic down to Modern English:—

MCJJILS Tracally is

			Middle	English,		
Teutonic.	Old English.	East Midland.	South- West.	Kent.	North.	Modern English.
	/ lond	land	lond	land	land	land
	wæs	was	was	wes	was	was
	eall	all	all	all	all	all
	earm	arm	arın	arm	arm	arm
	ealu	āle	ãle	yäle	āle	ale
	nama	nāme	nāme	nāme	näme	name .
	( helpan	helpe(n)	helpen	helpen	helpe	help
e	) eorde	erthe	erthe	yerthe	erthe	earth
C	) heofon	hevene	hevene	hevene	heven	heaven
	( etań	ëte(n)	ëten	èten	čte	eat
$\alpha$ followed	∫bed	bed	bed	bed	bed	bed
by $i$ (j)	{ mete	mēte	mēte	mēte	mēte	meat
i	fisc	fish	fish	fish	fish	fish
0	∫god	$\operatorname{god}$	god	$\operatorname{god}$	god	$\operatorname{god}$
V	€ ofer	över	över	över	över	over
	sunu	sune	sune	sone	son	son
u -	{	(sone)				
_	(bull	bull	bull	bull	bull	bull
ē	mæl	mēl	mēl	mēl	mēl	meal
ē	hér	hēr(e)	hēre	hēre	hēre	here
ē ē ī ō	mín	mīn	mīn	mīn	mīn	mine
	fót	fõt	<b>v</b> ōt	võt	fōt	foot
ũ	mús	mous	mous	mous	mous	mouse
ai	áð	ōth	ōth	ōth	ōth	oath
ລແ	léaf	lēve	lēve	ly(e)af	leve	leaf
eu	deep	`dēp	dēp	dyēp	dēp	deep

#### CONSONANTS.

60. We now proceed to deal with the development which the O.E. consonants have undergone from the earliest stage of the language to modern times.

B remained both in Middle and Modern English. In the verbs have (O.E. habban) and heave (O.E. hebban) v supplanted b, because the forms with f were more numerous than those with b, and in Middle English this f between vowels became v; the O.E. present tense was

ic hæbbe (I have). we habbað (we have)
ðu hafast (thou hast) ge habbað (you have)
he hafað (he has) hie habbað (they have)

But the preterite tense had only f :=

ic hæfde we hæfdon ðu hæfdest ge hæfdon he hæfde hie hæfdon.

The past participle was hæfd.

B sometimes crept in between m and l, and between m and r: O.E. Sýmel, Middle English thimbel (thimble); O.E. brémel, Middle English brembel (bramble), compare German Brom-beere; rumble appears as rommle in provincial E. and in other Teutonic dialects—Old E. slumerian, Middle English slombren (slumber), compare German schlummern; Gothic timrjan, O.E. timber, compare German zimmern. Compare in French, humble from humilis, nombre from numerus.

B after m, which does not appear before the Modern English period, was never spoken, and owes its origin to the analogy of such words as climb, comb, dumb, lamb, womb whose b was dropped (in the pronunciation) about 1600 A.D. This accounts for the wrong spelling of crumb (O.E. cruma, Middle English crumme), limb (Old and Middle English lim), numb (O.E. ge-numen, literally 'scized,' Middle',

English i-nume), thumb (O.E. \psima, Middle English thume).

In a few words b became p := O.E. god-sib (gossip); O.E.  $c\dot{y}s$ -libb (cheese-lip); Old French borse (purse), cf. bursar, disburse; Old French abricos (apricot).

P in the beginning was dropped before s even in O.E. Compare sealm (psalm).

It crept in between m and  $t^1$ :—O.E. &metig Middle English empti (empty); compare gleam and glimpse, sempster and seamster; French tempter from Latin tentare.

In a few cases p became b:-O.E. loppestre (lobster); O.E. attor-coppe (spider), Middle English coppe, Modern English cob-web.

F was voiced between two vowels:—O.E. heofon, Middle English heven (heaven); O.E. seofon, Middle English seven (seven); O.E. lif, gen. lifes, dat. life became in Middle English lyf, lyves, lyve; hence in Modern English life, lives, leaf, leaves, &c.

Initial f was voiced in Southern English; compare vinger (finger), viss (fish) in the Kentish work Ayenbite of Inwyt (A.D. 1340). In a few instances this Southern v was introduced into the London dialect:—O.E. fana (banner, compare German Fahne), Middle and Modern English vane; O.E. fat, Middle English fatt (or vat), Modern English vat; O.E. fyxen (a she-fox), Middle English fixen (or vixen), Modern English vixen. Compare the other Kenticisms in modern standard English, as left, evil, &c.

Fin the middle of the word often disappeared:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
héafod	heved	head
hláford	loverd	lord
hlæfdige	lavedy	lady

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is doubtful whether this p was ever spoken; it may represent only a partial unvoicing of the m before t.

Assimilation took place in woman (O.E. wifman), leman (O.E. léofman), lammas (O.E. hláf-mæsse, i.e. loaf-mass).

IV. O.E. w was, on the whole, kept in the beginning of words, but there are a few exceptions in which it was discarded:—O.E. wós, Middle English wose, Modern ooze. Compare ood = wood (mad) in Starkey's England in the Time of Henry VIII. p. 12; oldys = wolds, ibid. p. 73.

In the middle it was discarded before o in the following words:—who (O.E. hwd, Middle English  $h\bar{o}$ ); so (O.E. swd, Middle English s $\bar{o}$ ); two (O.E. twd, Middle English  $t\bar{o}$ ); sword (O.E. sweard, Middle English sword); thong (O.E. Swong, Middle English both thwong and thong). W also disappeared in such (O.E. swylc, Middle English soche); kill (O.E. cwellan [or cwyllan], Middle English cwellen); answer, (O.E andswarian, Middle English answeren).

Note.—In the sixteenth century we find soun(d) along with swoon, soop along with swoop; we was absorbed by preceding vowels both in the middle and at the end of words: O. E. feower, Middle English fower or f(c)our, Modern English four; O. E. láwerce, Middle English lark; O. E. sáwol, Middle English soule, Modern English soul; O. E. stréaw, Middle English straw, Modern English straw; O. E. chéow, Middle English cheu, Modern English straw; O. E. chéow, Middle English cheu, Modern English knee; O. E. tréowe, Middle English trewe, Modern English true.

W before r was not silent before the seventeenth century.

Besides w, the regular descendant of O.E. w, there is, in Middle English, another deriving from g in the middle of words:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
folgian	folwen	follow
galga	galwe	gallow(s)
morgen	morwe	morrow
hálga	halwe	All-Hallows 2

<sup>1</sup> quell is a doublet of kill.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Holy, the modern word, is a doublet of hallow deriving from hálig.

D remained in Middle and Modern English. In a few words (where an r followed) d changed into th.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
fæder	fader	father
móder	moder	mother
tó-gædre	togeddre	together
hider	hider	hither
ðider	thider	thither

Note.—Conversely O. E. & changed in some words into d:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
byrðen cúðe	burden	burden
cúðe	<b>c</b> outhe	could <sup>1</sup>
morðor	morther	murder

D crept in between n and l or r:

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
spinel	spinel	spindle
cyn-ræden	kinrede	kindred
dunor	thunder	thunder

In a few words d was added to final n: Old Norse bùinn (ready) became bound, Middle English hine became hind, and in the same way Old English lànan was developed into lend. Compare also expound (Middle English expounen, from exponere).

Note.—In Middle English and in the first period of Modern English the tendency to add d after final n was more general, and did not stop even at proper names; we find Mahound (Old French Mahoun), Hamand (instead of Haman), Symond (Simon). Sermond (instead of sermon) in Berners' Huon of Bordeux is perhaps a misprint.

Conversely, final d after n was often dropped. We find frenship (instead of friendship); an (instead of and, very frequent); fon (instead of fond); compare the Modern English pronunciation of handsome, handkerchief.

D was also sometimes added to l: Ilde of Wist (Isle of

<sup>1</sup> I was introduced in analogy of would (O.E. wolde).

Wight), Beues of Hamton—l. 1335; erld (earl), Ferumbras—l. 241; vild (vile) often in Elizabethan writers, e.g.

"The vild profaner of this sacred bower."

Kyd, Spanish Tragedy, p. 55.

D was discarded in bless (O.E. blédsian, to consecrate by blood, from blód, 'blood'), and gossip (O.E. god-sibb).

In the preterite and past participle of contracted weak verbs d became t:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
gyrde	girte	girt
sende	sente	sent

T. Final t became in some words d: O.E. prút, Middle English prūd, Modern English proud; O.E. prýte, Middle English pride, Modern English pride; Latin c(h)arta, Old French carte (charte), Modern English card; Old and Modern French diamant, Modern English diamond.

Quite exceptionally t was changed into th in author from Latin auctor. In London documents of the fifteenth century we find occasionally tho (instead of to = two), whythe (instead of white). A relic of this wrong spelling (which had no phonetic significance) is, in Modern English, Thames (O.E. Temese).

Final t was dropped in O.E. anfilt(e), Middle English anvilt (anvelt), Modern English anvil.

T has in some words been added after final n and s in Middle and Modern English.

Old and Modern French ancien, Modern English ancient. Old and Modern French faisan, Modern English pheasant.

Old and Modern French tyran, Modern English tyrant.

<sup>1</sup> The doublet of card is chart.

Old English hies, Middle English bihæste, Modern English behest.

Old English on-gagnes, Middle English agenst, Modern English against.

Old English on-gemang, Middle English æmanges, Modern English amongst.

Old English tó-middes, Middle English amiddes, Modern English amidst.

Th. Initial th was unvoiced in Old and Middle English. At the end of the Middle English period, however, it became voiced in unaccented monosyllables, as in the (article), thee, thine, that, though, &c.<sup>1</sup>

Th (8) between vowels was, in all probability, already voiced in Old English.

For the change of th into d, as in burden, murder, see above under D.

Th disappeared in Old English worδscipe, Middle English wor(th)ship, Modern English worship; Old English Norδfole, Modern English Norfolk, compare Norman, Norway, Norwich.

S (like th) was voiceless in the beginning and at the end of words but voiced between vowels. In the fifteenth century, however, finals became voiced in unaccented endings and monosyllables, as in elles (else), handes (hands), is, his.

For the change of Teutonic s into r see above § 25 (Verner's Law).

Initial sc always became sh, except in words which were influenced by corresponding Scandinavian words:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
sceadu	sohāde	shade
sceal	schal	shall
scéadan	shēden	shed

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
scelf	shelfe	shelf
scip	ship	$_{ m ship}$
scort	short	short

The following words with sc are:—

- (1) Influenced by the Norse.
- (2) Borrowed from the Norse.
- (3) Borrowed from the Latin or French.
- (1) O.E. sceabb, Middle English scab, Modern English scab; this shape of the word shows the influence of Scandinavian (comp. Swedish skabb), while the doublet shabby (Middle English shab = scab) derives directly from the O.E. word.
- O.E. scealu, Middle English scale, Modern English scale(s); comp. Old Norse skál.
- O.E. scrapian, Middle English schrapen and scrapen, Modern English scrape; comp. Scandinavian skrapa.
  - (2) Old Norse skil, Middle and Modern English skill;

    ", ", skinn, ", ", ", ", skin;
    ", ", skyrta, ", ", ", ", skirt;
    ", ", sky, ", ", ", ", ", sky.
- (3) O.E. scól (from Latin schola), Middle English scóle Modern English school; Old French escorgie, Middle English scourge, Modern English scourge; the words scaffold, scald, escape, scarcely, and others, derive from the corresponding Old French words in the dialect of Picardy.
- K. Teutonic k underwent in Frisian and Old English an important change. Before the vowels  $\alpha$ ,  $\dot{\alpha}$ , e, e, e,  $\dot{\epsilon}a$ ,  $\dot{\epsilon}a$ ,  $\dot{\epsilon}a$ ,  $\dot{\epsilon}i$  it was formed by the tongue and hard palate. Accordingly k shows, in English, a twofold development.
  - (1) K before consonants and the vowels a, d, o,  $\delta$ , u, u', u'

i, which was guttural, i.e. formed by the tongue and soft palate, remained in Middle and Modern English:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
cláne	cleene	clean
cnéo .	knee	knee
créopan	creepen	creep
can	can	can
corn	corn	corn
cuppe	cuppe	cup
cyning	kyng	king

The came ch (a) before  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ , i, i:

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ceaf (cæf)	chaff	chaff
ceafor (cafor)	chaffer	(cock) chafer
ceorl	chérl	churl
céace	chēke	cheek
cicen	chiken	chicken
céosan	chēsen	choose

(b) in words where, in Teutonic, k had been followed by i:—

benc (from Teutonic banki)	bench -	bench
fine (from Teutonic finki)	finch	finch
stenc	stench	stench

Compare drench (O.E. drencan, Gothic dragkjan), quench (O.E. cwencan), wrench (O.E. wrencan);

(c) In monosyllables after i :

díc	dich	ditch
pic	pich	pitch
líc	İich	lich-gate

Compare all the town names ending in wich, as Greenwich, Harwich, Ipswich, &c.

But this rule refers only to the Southern (and East Midland) dialects. In the North there seems to have been a stop in the development of k, and even a reaction in

favour of k instead of ch. Compare the following instances:—

Old English.	Southern.	Northern.	Modern English
ic	ich	ic	1
cetel	chetel	ketel	kettle
micel	moche	mikel	much
sécan	sēchen	seke	seek
wyrcean	wirchen	wirken	work

Compare Scotch birk, breeks, kaff, cauk, kirk, kirn, kist, sick, streek with English birch, breeches, chaff, chalk, church, churn, chest, such, stretch.

Such words as cold, seek must, therefore, have been influenced by the Northern dialects; their Southern form would be chold, seech (cf. beseech).

G had also, in O.E., two different sounds, and accordingly shows a twofold development.

In prehistoric O.E. g was a voiced guttural spirant. G kept this sound in the beginning of words before consonants, and the back vowels a, o, u, y; but before e, i, and after e, a its articulation was very early shifted from the *soft* palate to the *hard*, and g was then pronounced like g in g i

In the course of the O.E. period the guttural spirant g became a stop in the beginning of words, but remained a spirant in the middle. This in early Middle English was written 3, but subsequently acquired the sound of w (written w or u):—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
glæs	glass	glass
gréne	greene	green
galga	galwe	gallow(s)
gát	goot	goat
$\operatorname{god}$	god	$\mathbf{g}$ od

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
gód	good	good
gutt	gut	gut
gylt	gilt	guilt bowe
boga	bowe	bowe
dragan	drawen	draw
folgian	folwen	follow

Palatal g remained, but was no longer written g, but 3, afterwards y:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
gearn	3arn	yarn
gerd	3erde	yard
ge	5e	ye
geldan	5elden	yield
geolu	5elwe	yellow
geong	zong	young
dæg	dæz (oldest form)	dai
weg	wez (oldest form)	way

Palatal g in the middle and at the end was later on absorbed by the preceding vowels and became i:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
brægen	brain	brain
fæger	fair	fair
hægel	hail	hail
regnian	reinen	rain
seglian	seilen	sail
éage	eie	ey
fléogan	flien	fly
dæg	dai	day
weg	wei	way

In the following words long i represents two ii (from O.E. ig):—

O.E. tigele (Latin tegula), Middle English tile, Modern English tile; O.E. stigel, Middle and Modern English stile; O.E. Frige-deg, Middle and Modern English Friday; O.E. nigon, Middle English nizen, Modern English nine

Compare also short i in stirrup (O.E. stigráp, 'mountingrope').

To the latter rule, namely the change of O.E. g into 3 and i, there are many exceptions which are accounted for by

- (1) Analogy, or
- (2) Scandinavian influence.

O.E. ng and gg (cg) which, in Teutonic, had been followed by j (i), were palatal, and, accordingly changed in Middle English into nj and j:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
crengan	crengen	cringe
swengan	swengen	swinge
brycg	brigge	bridge
ecg	egge	edge
micge	migge	midge
hrycg	rigge	ridge

M in the beginning of words of Teutonic origin remained; but h in hl, hn, hr was beginning to be dropped as early as 1000 A.D.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
habban	habben (haven)	have
hægl	hail	hail
hand	hand	hand
hláford	lõverd	lord
hkéfdige	lëvedi	lady
hléor (check)	lēre	leer
hnappian	nappen	nap
hnecca	nekke	neck
hnutu	nute	nut
hræfn	raven	raven
hreddan	redden	rid
hring	ring	ring

In Modern English there is a tendency to drop h before w := what (only a modified spelling of Old and Middle

English hwat) is colloquially pronounced wat: which (().E. hwylc) becomes wich, &c.

Guttural h, in the middle and at the end was rounded in Middle English, and, in Modern English, passed into f:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
cohhettan	co(u)ghen	cough
genóh(g)	inoh(gh)	enough
hl(i)ehhan	lahhen (lauh)	laugh
tóh	touh	tough

H in the middle followed by t came to be dropped, the preceding vowel being lengthened.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
dihtan	dihten	dight
léoht (liht)	liht	light
meaht (miht)	miht	might
niht	niht	night
riht	riht	right

# appeared in the following words:-

Old English	Middle English.	Modern English.
:(lc	ech	each
ealswá	alse, ase	as
hwyle	whilch	which
swylc	soche	such
mycel	moche	much <sup>1</sup>
	wenchel	wench 2

L in could is a spelling mistake caused by the analogy of should, would.

L was dropped in pronunciation of the following words, although it is kept in the spelling:—balm, calm, calf, chalk, talk, walk, should, would, &c.

N. It is one of the features of Low-German, (Frisian, Old Saxon, and Old English) that n before the voiceless

<sup>2</sup> In the last two instances, however, there is a change in the formation of words rather than a change of sound

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mickle, which is still used in the North, occurs in Shakspere:— An oath of mickle might. Henry V. ii. 1, 70.

spirants th, s, is dropped, the preceding vowel being lengthened:—O.E cúde (could), Gothic kunha, German konnte; óder (other), Gothic anhara, German ander; tód (tooth), Gothic tunhus; gós (goose), Gothic gans, German gans; ús (us), Gothic unsis.

 ${\it N}$  of suffixes disappeared in Middle English as early as the thirteenth century:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
gamen	gāme	game
mægden	maide	maid
biforan	bifore	before
bihindan	bihinde	behind
onbúton	aboute	about
wiðúton	withoute	without

N was added to some words in consequence of a misdivision of consecutive words, especially of the indefinite article an and nouns. Thus an ewt (O.E. efete, Middle English evete, evete) became a newt, an eke-name became a nickname; conversely n was clipped off from the following nouns and added to the article:—a nadder (O.E. néeddre, Middle English nadder) became an adder, a napron (Old French naperon) became an apron, a numpire (Middle English noumpere) became an umpire. In Middle English the spelling a nother is quite common; in Shakspere we find nuncle, naunt.

N appears as m in hemp (O.E. hænep, German hanf, κάνναβις), lime-tree (O.E. lind, Middle English linde, German linde); compare also comfort (Old French confort), tempt (Old French tenter), venom (Old French venin).

R has intruded into the following words:—cartridge (French cartouche), corporal (French caporal), bride-groom (O.E. brýd-guma), hoarse (O.E. hás, Middle English hoos, German heis-er).

### CHAPTER VIII

#### ORTHOGRAPHY

61. LETTERS are conventional signs employed to represent sounds. The collection of letters is called the alphabet; from Alpha and Beta, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. The alphabet has grown out of the old pictorial mode of writing. The earliest written signs denoted concrete objects: they were pictorial representations of objects, like the old Egyptian hieroglyphics.

Then single sounds were afterwards indicated by parts of these pictures.

The alphabet which has given rise to that now in use among nearly all the European nations was originally syllabic, in which the consonants were regarded as the substantial part of the syllable, the vowels being looked upon as altogether subordinate and of inferior value. Consequently the consonants only were written, or written in full—the accompanying vowel being either omitted, or represented by some less conspicuous symbol. Such is the construction of the ancient Semitic alphabet—the Phænician, from which have sprung the Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin alphabets.

The Runic alphabet, in which some of the oldest English texts, such as those on the Cross of Ruthwell and the Casket, were written, was founded on one of the Greek or Latin

alphabets, the changes in the shape having been caused by the nature of the materials (wood, stone), which the Teutonic tribes made use of in their inscriptions.

62. On being converted to Christianity, the Anglo-Saxons adopted the Latin alphabet in its British form. It consisted of twenty-three letters; i and j, as well as u and v being expressed by the same character. To the Roman alphabet the Anglo-Saxons added three new signs: p (thorn) and p (wyn) are Runic letters;  $\delta$  is merely a crossed d, used instead of the thorn.

Vowel-sounds which were not found in Latin were represented by combinations of letters:  $\alpha$  in  $f \alpha d e r$  (father),  $\alpha t$  (at),  $\alpha$  in  $f \alpha t$  (feet; oldest form, later  $f \dot{e} t$ ).

The principle of the Old English was a phonetic one, that is to say, people tried to write as they spoke. But in practice, even in the Old English spelling, the correspondence between the sounds and the symbols by which they were represented was imperfect. Thus the letter c meant both guttural c as in cyn (kin), and the palatal or front sound which was very near our ch as in céace (cheek), and f stood both for the unvoiced f as in fugol (fowl), and the voiced v as in drifan (drive).

63. In Middle English the French alphabet, which was founded on the Latin, came into use. In consequence of this, several letters and combinations of letters came to represent other sounds than before.

U was used to represent O.E. y (mutation of Teutonic u), as in burgen, O.E. byrigan (to bury), burdene, O.E. byrden (burden).

O.E.  $\hat{y}$  was often represented by ui, as in fuir, O.E. fyr (fire).

For clearness' sake y was written for i, and o for u before, m, n, u, as in nymen (to take), fynden (to find), gyues (gives,

fetters), wyues (wives); comen (to come), honi (honey; O.E. hunig), loue (love; O.E. lufu).

Ou was used to represent the sound descending from O.E. ú:—foul (O.E. fúl), hous (O.E. hús), mouse (O.E. mús).

Ch was introduced for the palatal sound of c (cheake = check), gh for O.E. h (knight, right).

- 64. At the end of the fifteenth and in the beginning of the sixteenth centuries two causes largely contributed to make the English orthography much more inconsistent than it had ever been before.
- (1) The printing-press once being introduced into England, the spelling tended more and more to get settled, till at last a uniform printing orthography was generally adopted. The natural consequence of this fixed traditional spelling was that the old symbols remained, although the sounds which they were meant to represent underwent great changes both in their quality and quantity. Thus the final e, initial g and k before n, gh after i, are still written, although they have been entirely discarded in pronunciation.
- (2) The other cause which, although to a smaller extent, also contributed to widen the gulf between speech and spelling was the practice which came up of modifying the spelling in accordance with etymology. What we rightly consider now as natural change and development of sound, was in those times looked upon as corruption, and therefore many words were artificially spelt not as they were pronounced, but as the Latin or Greek etymology seemed to require.

Thus debt got its b from Latin debitum, although the English word derives from French dette; and the Middle English form perfit, which was adopted from the Old French parfet(z), was transformed into perfect, the Latin shape of the same word. Compare also doubt, advance, insure.

## 65. To sum up :--

During the written period of our language the pronunciation of sounds has undergone great and extensive changes at different times, while the spelling has not kept pace with these changes, so that there has arisen a great dislocation of our orthographical system, a divorcement of our written from our spoken alphabet. Besides, the introduction of foreign elements into the English language during its written period has brought into use different and often discordant systems of orthography (cf. ch in church, machine, Christian, monarch).

The English spelling, then, is an imperfect one, for a perfect alphabet must be based upon phonetic principles, and

- (1) Every simple sound must be represented by a distinct symbol.
- (2) No sound must be represented by more than one sign.

Now the English language contains, at the lowest possible estimate, forty-two sounds, but the written alphabet has only twenty-six letters or symbols to represent them: therefore in the first point necessary to a perfect system of orthography the English alphabet is found wanting.

The alphabet, as we have seen, is redundant, containing three superfluous letters, c, q, x; on the other hand it has only twenty-three letters wherewith to represent forty-two sounds. So that it is both imperfect and redundant.

Attempts at reforming the present spelling have been made by Alexander John Ellis, A. Melville Bell, Isaac Pitman, and Henry Sweet.

#### CHAPTER IX

#### ACCENT

66. ACCENT, in its general meaning, is 'a prominence given to one syllable in a word, or in a phrase, over the adjacent syllables.'

In the Teutonic languages this prominence was produced by the greater force or *stress* of the voice. As we have seen above, the *stress*, in Old English, as well as in the other Teutonic dialects, was laid on the first syllable of a simple word.

In compounds the same principle was generally followed, but there was one important exception. Compounds consisting of particles (whether separable or inseparable) and verbs had the stress on the verbs:—

- O.E. a-beran (to bear), a-bídan (to abide), a-brecan (to break).
- O.E. at-beran (to bear forward), at-fiestan (to afflict with), at-sittan (to sit by).
- O.E. be-cuman (to become), be-delfan (to bury), be-fæstan (to fasten).
- O.E. ge-céosan (to choose), ge-cnáwan (to know), ge-séon (to see).
- O.E. of-faran (to overtake), of-gifan (to give up), of-sendan (to send for).

- O.E. ofer-cuman (to overcome), ofer-drincan (to overdrink one's self), ofer-flówan (overflow).
- O.E. to-brecan (to break), to-dúlan (to separate), to-teran (to tear).
  - O.E. un-dón (to undo).

If the particles aet-, of-, ofer-,  $t\acute{o}$ - form the first part of noun compounds, they have the stress:---

- O.E. at-steall (camp-station), of-spring (offspring).
- O.E. ofer-mód ('over-mood,' pride), tó-cyme (coming, arrival).

In Middle English the same principle of accentuation was followed in words of Teutonic origin; only in a few compounds the stress was shifted from the particle to the noun, as in the words *al-mihti* (almighty), *mis-dēd* (misdeed).

Words of French origin were at first stressed in accordance with the French system of accentuation, which was practically to stress the last syllable containing a full vowel. Hence we find in Middle English resoun' with the accent on the second syllable, fortune', prizoun', etc.

But as early as the thirteenth century, the Teutonic accentuation began to assert itself in French words, so that there arose a hard struggle between the two systems of accentuation which lasted on to the sixteenth century. Not only *Chaucer*, but also *Wyatt*, *Surrey*, and *Spenser* took advantage of this circumstance of the accent being unfixed, and stressed words of French origin at their convenience.

By eterne word to deyen in prisoun'.

CHAUCER, Knight's Tale, 251.

But

This pri'soun causede me not for to crye.

Ibid. 237.

Surrey has pala'ce, travail', etc.

But the pala'ce within confounded was.

Works (Aldine Edition), p. 132.

The end of each travail' forthwith I sought to know.

1bid. p. 82.

A straunger in thy home and ignorant'
Of Phaedria, thine owne fellow servaunt'.
Spenser, Faërie Queene, ii. 6, 9.

In Modern English the tendency towards bringing words of French and Latin origin under the Teutonic accentuation has, on the whole, carried the day, so that, as a rule, familiar words of French, Latin, and Greek origin throw back their accent as far as possible from the end:—avarice, criminal, dangerous, penitence; delicacy, imagery, literature; telegram, photograph.

The Old English system of stressing the verb in verbal compounds and the prefix in nouns as in *ofer-cuman*, *un-dón*, in contrast with *ofer-mód*, *tó-cyme*, has been extended to compounds of French origin. This accounts for the different accentuation in such words as

ab'sent (adj.) absent' (verb)
com'pact compact'
ex'pert expert'

Later on, this dissimilation was extended also to simple words, so that the accent serves to distinguish nouns from verbs:—

aug'ment augment' fer'ment ferment' frequent',

etc.

(1) Many words of French origin have kept their original accent, especially nouns, in -ade, -ier (eer), -é, -ee, -oon, -ine, -ette, -esque:—Cascade, crusade; cavalier, chandelier; gazetteer, pioneer (in conformity with these we say harpooneer, mountaineer); legatee, lessee; balloon, cartoon; chagrin; routine, marine; gazette; burlesque, grotesque.

- (2) Many Latin and Greek words of comparatively recent introduction keep their original form and accent, as-auro'ra, coro'na, colos'sus, diagno'sis, ide'a, papy'rus.
- (3) Some Italian and Spanish words keep their full form and original accent, as *mulatto*, *sonata*, *volcano*.
  - 67. The influence of stress accounts for a great many changes in the history of sounds and inflexions. The unaccented syllables being much weaker than accented ones, they are liable to be shortened or dropped altogether.

The dropping of unaccented syllables occurs--

- (a) At the beginning of words (aphæresis).
- (b) In the middle of words (syncope).
- (c) At the end of words (apocope).
- (a) Aphæresis.
- (a) In words of Teutonic origin.

The Old English prefix ge-, Middle English y-, which we find even in the sixteenth century, has disappeared altogether in Modern English. Ydept and other such past participles are archaisms.

The dropping of a in such phrases as 'the house is building,' which would be Middle English a-building for on building comes under this head. Compare also Old English of-dúne, Middle English adown, Modern English down.

 $(\beta)$  In words of French origin.

Words which in Old French began with es-dropped the e:—

Old French.	Middle English	Modern English.
escars	scars	scarce
escarlat	scarlat	scarlet
escorgie	scorge	scourge
espace	space	space
espus	spus	spouse
esquier	squier	squire
estendard	standard	standard
De-, di- before s  Old French.  despenser	was often dropped :  Middle English.  despencer	— Modern English. Spencer, Spenser
(original meaning	: 'steward')	

Other instances of aphæresis:-

Latin (from Greek) episcopus, Old English biscep, Middle and Modern English bishop: Middle English idropesic, from Old French idropisie (Latin hydropisis), dropsy.

despit

disport

distresse

spite

sport

stress

(b) Syncope.

despit

desport

destrece

(a) In words of Teutonic origin.

Even in Old English short i and u forming the second syllable of three-syllabled words were discarded, when immediately following a stressed long syllable; thus the preterites of weak verbs are accounted for :—ic hérde or hyrde (I heard), Gothic hausida; ic sende (I sent), Gothic sandida.

The tendency to drop the middle vowel produced the following changes:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
adesa	adese	adze
<b>æ</b> mete	amete	ant
Engla-land	Engle-land	England
láwerce	larke	lark.

Cf. fortnight from fourteen night, sennight from seven night, and the pronunciation of Gloucester, Leicester, etc.

In Modern colloquial English the same tendency may be observed.

# $(\beta)$ In words of French origin.

Old French.	Middle English.	Modern English
botiller	boteler	butler
chaundeler	chandler	chandler
garnement	garnement	garment
keverchief	coverchef	kerchief
marechal	mareschal	marshal
procuracie	prokecye	proxy

# (c) Apocope.

The most important change produced by apocope in the development of English was the dropping of the final -e, which as late as Chaucer's time was pronounced in innumerable words that now end phonetically in a consonant.

For the changes produced in Teutonic by the shifting of accent, see Verner's Law, § 25 above.

### CHAPTER X

#### FTVMOLOGY

- 68. ETYMOLOGY treats of the structure and history of words; its chief divisions are *inflexion* and *derivation* (including *composition*).
  - 69. Words are of two kinds:
- (1) Notional words, which symbolize objects of thought (whether things or beings, qualities or attributes, actions or states), as man, sweet, good, sweetly, and most verbs;
- (2) Relational words, which merely indicate the relations or relative positions of objects of thought, as he, this, here, then, of, and the verb to be when used as a mere copula.

This classification is often useful, though it is not capable of universal application, and it is not always possible to draw the line sharply between the two classes of words.

Words as actually used in language have a relational element added to the notional element in their meaning. Thus man and man's, move and moved, stand for the same object of thought, but viewed in different relations:

70. The variation of form which words undergo in order to adapt them to different relations is called **Inflexion** (or *flexion*). Ordinarily inflexion consists in the addition of different endings (called *flexional suffixes*) to a stem, which is the part of the word which remains the same (except so far as the addition of the suffix may cause euphonic modifications). Thus in the Latin *rego*, *regis*, *regit*, the stem is *reg*-, and *-o*, *-is*, *-it* are the flexional suffixes.

In English, as in many other languages, many flexional suffixes have been lost, so that one or more of the inflexional forms of a word have come to coincide with the stem. Thus in Modern English stone is the form not only of the stem, but also of the nominative case; but in primitive Teutonic staino- was the stem, and staino-z the nominative case.

The function of inflexion is, in modern languages, often served by the addition of relational words. Thus we can say the house of the queen for the queen's house; here the word of fulfils the same purpose as the flexional suffix 's. The English I had loved means the same as the Latin amaveram. In grammar it is found convenient to treat the phrasal substitutes for inflexion under the same head as the inflexions proper.

It was formerly believed that all flexional suffixes were originally distinct words. This is true of some of them; the French (j') aimerai, I shall love, for instance, represents the vulgar Latin amare habeo (= 'to love' + 'I have'). But few philologists now hold that flexional suffixes universally originated in this way.

71. **Derivation** is the formation of word-stems. Many English stems are adopted from other languages, as *city*; others descend from primitive Teutonic, or even from primitive Indo-European, as *guest*, Teut. *gasti*-, I.E. *ghosti-*;

others have been formed in English itself from other stems by the addition of what are called *formative suffixes*, as beautiful.

In their ultimate analysis, stems consist of a root and one or more formative suffixes. A root is a syllable or combination of syllables expressing a general (often very vague) notion which may be common to a great number of words. The roots of English words are mostly inherited from the primitive Indo-European tongue, with gradual alteration in their sounds. - Indo-European roots had usually several forms, differing in their vowels, and these varieties are perpetuated in the modern languages. The root which is contained in the verb bear, with its inflexional forms bore and borne, for instance, had in the original language the forms bher-, bhor-, bhr- (in primitive Teutonic ber-, bar-, bur-, or bor-), and other English words derived from it are bairn, birth, burden. Roots are either predicative, corresponding to notional words, or demonstrative, corresponding to relational words.

- 72. **Composition** is the formation of a compound stem by joining together two or more stems, as in *work-shop*. In many cases a stem that was very frequently used in composition has lost its original signification, and become a mere formative suffix or prefix. Lists of such formative elements are given in Chap. XIX.
  - 73. The parts of speech 1 are:
    - I. Inflexional. 

      {
       1. Noun (Substantive, Adjective).
       2. Verb.
       3. Pronoun.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The term 'parts of speech' is a mistranslation of Latin partes orationis, which originally meant 'the parts of a sentence,' the elements of which a sentence consists.

II. Indeclinable words or particles.
(4. Adverb.
5. Preposition.
6. Conjunction.
7. Interjection.

### 74. Nouns 1 include-

- (1) Abstract substantives, like *virtue*, which denote the *qualities* of things simply, or are significative only of mental conceptions.
- (2) Concrete substantives, which denote things or persons.
- (3) Adjectives, *i.e.* attributes used as descriptive epithets, and, in fully inflected languages, varying according to the gender, number, and case of the substantive to which the adjective refers. This was the case in Old English; but in Modern English the flexional suffixes have fallen away, so that the adjective cannot, except from the historical point of view, be classed among the inflexional parts of speech.
- (4) The verb is the part of speech which is used to predicate something of a subject. English verbs have inflexions varying according to the number and person of the subject, the time to which the sentence relates, and the class of the sentence.
- 75. **Pronouns** are designations analogous to nouns, but of purely relational signification; they are not permanently attached to certain objects or classes of objects; nor are they limited in their application. "Only one thing may be called the *sun*; only certain objects are *white*; but there is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> French nom, Lat. nomen, literally name. By English writers noun is commonly used in the limited sense of 'substantive.'

nothing which may not be I and you and it, alternately, as the point from which it is viewed.

"In this universality of their application as dependent upon relative situation merely, and in the consequent capacity of each of them to designate any object which has its own specific name besides, and so, in a manner, to stand for and represent that other name, lies the essential character of the pronoun. The Hindu title, sarvanâman, 'name for everything,' 'universal designation,' is therefore more directly and fundamentally characteristic than the one we give them, pronoun, 'standing for a name.'"—WHINEY.

Some pronouns correspond in function to substantives, as *I*, he, who; others to adjectives, as this, that, which (as used in which man). In the etymological sense of the word pronoun it would be strictly appropriate only to the former class.

76. **Adverbs** are derivative forms of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns Thus, our adverbial suffix -ly was originally -lice = the ablative or dative case of an adjective ending in -lic = like; and the adverbial ending -ment of Romance words is the Latin ablative mente, 'with mind' (Fr. bonnement = kindly, bona mente, 'with kind intent').

Many relational adverbs are formed from demonstrative pronouns, as he-re, hi-ther, whe-n, &c.

77. Prepositions were once adverbial prefixes to the verb, serving to point out more clearly the direction of the verbal action: by degrees they detached themselves from the verb and came to belong to the noun, furthering the disappearance of its case-endings, and assuming their office. The oldest prepositions can be traced to pronominal roots; others are from verbal roots.—Whitney.

78. Conjunctions are of comparatively late growth, and are either of pronominal origin, or abbreviated forms of expression, as—

```
else = O.E. elles, a genitive of el = alius.

unless = on less, cp. French à moins que.

lest = O.E. \delta y less = e \delta minus.

but = by out = (O.S. bi-\hat{a}tan, O.E. bútan).

likewise = in like wise (manner).

&c.
```

# CHAPTER XI

#### SUBSTANTIVES

79. GENDER is a grammatical distinction, and applies to words only. Sex is a natural distinction, and applies to living objects. In Modern English, however, the gender of a noun is always determined by the sex of the object it denotes: i.e. nouns designating male persons or animals are masculine, those denoting female persons or animals are feminine; and those designating inanimate things are neuter, except so far as by personification we attribute sex to them, as 'The Sun in his glory, the Moon in her wane'

This fact is commonly expressed by saying that Modern English has *natural* gender.

In many other languages, while nouns denoting males and females are, for the most part (not quite always), respectively masculine and feminine, those denoting inanimate objects are classified as masculine, feminine, and neuter, in a seemingly arbitrary manner; the choice of gender depending often on the ending which the word originally had. Languages in which this is the case are said to have grammatical gender.

Loss of Grammatical Gender in English.

80. The Oldest English, like Greek and Latin and Modern German, possessed grammatical gender: fréodóm (freedom)

and wifmon (woman) were masculine, grétung (greeting) feminine, wif (woman) and cicen (chicken) neuter. In O.E. there were very many feminine nouns, denoting female persons or animals, which differed from the corresponding masculine nouns, denoting males, by the addition or alteration of a suffix. Thus all nouns ending in -a were masculine, the corresponding feminine suffix being -e. Suffixes added to form feminines were -en, -estre.

```
mág-a,a kinsman.mág-e,a kinswoman.widuwa,a widower.widuwe,a widow.munuc,a monk.mynecen,a nun.god,a god.gyden,a goddess.webba,a weaver.webbe and webb-estre,a webster.
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- 81. Grammatical gender went gradually out of use after the Norman Conquest, owing to the following causes:—
- (1) The confusion between masculine and feminine suffixes.
  - (2) Loss of suffixes marking gender.
- (3) Loss of case inflexions in the masculine and feminine forms of demonstratives.
- In O.E. there are many instances of the same noun having different genders. Thus we find

```
díc (dyke) both m. and f. hyll (hill) ,, m. and n. heofon (heaven) fen (fen) ,, m. and n. friþ (peace) ,, m. and n. seeg (sedge) ,, m. and n.
```

In the second half of the twelfth century there are already several instances of the neuter supplanting the grammatical gender of masculine and feminine.

Eal be murhoe be me us bihat, al hit sceal beo god ane. (All the mirth that is promised us shall be only God).

Moral Poem, 1. 364.

Myrd is a feminine in O.E.

He haueb us izarked be eche blisse, zif we wulleh hit iernien, in heuene riche (he has prepared for us eternal bliss, if we strive to merit it, in the kingdom of heaven).

Old English Homilies, i. 19.

Bliss is a feminine in O.E.

His nome bet we of him haven.

He hit hale 3c, bet we craven.

(His name that we of him have, that he it hallow we crave).

Ibid. 59.

Nama is a masculine in O.E.

Tle number of such neuters is much greater in the texts of the thirteenth century (cf. lare, 'lore,' Legend of St. Katherine, 117; speche, 'speech,' Ancren Riwle, p. 74; mile, 'mile, 'mildess,' 'charity,' Layamon B, ii. 281; sibbe, 'peace,' ibid. A and B i. 155), and in the beginning of the fourteenth century the grammatical gender is, as a rule, out of use.

82. Traces of grammatical gender were preserved much longer in some dialects than in others. The Northern dialects were the first to discard the older distinctions, which, however, survived in the Southern dialect of Kent as late at least as 1340.

"Therthe schok, the sonne dym becom In thare tyde."—SHOREHAM.

Here the inflection of the demonstrative shows that *tyde* is feminine.

"Be thise virtue the guode overcomth alle his vyendes thane dyevel, the wordle, and thet viess."—AYENBITE.

Dyevel is masculine; wordle feminine; and vless neuter.

83. The names of males belong to the masculine gender, the names of females to the feminine gender. The names of things of neither sex are neuter. In a few cases the attribution of sex to inanimate objects has given rise to something superficially resembling grammatical gender. The sun is masculine, the moon is feminine, reversing the gender in Old English and Modern German. Ship and (often) boat, and names denoting kinds of ships and boats, are feminine. Otherwise the masculine or feminine is substituted for the neuter only when there is conscious personification. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries this substitution sometimes occurs where it would not now be admissible.

This Virgile made by his craft an image or a statue, and sett him in the middes of the cite.—Gesta Romanorum (A.D. 1470), p. 27.

In one of which a sumptuous temple stands That threats the stars with *her* aspiring top. MARLOWE, *Faustus*, Scene VIII.

- 84. There are three ways of distinguishing the masculine and feminine in English substantives:—
- (a) By employing a different word for the male and female.
  - (b) By the use of suffixes.
  - (c) By composition.
- 85. Before the Conquest our language possessed many words answering to our 'man.'

The term 'man' corresponded generally in sense to the German *mensch*, person, and was not confined originally to the masculine gender; hence it occurs frequently in compounds with a qualifying term; as—wif-man, woman; léof-man, sweetheart; we'pned-man, male.

<sup>1</sup> Wa'pned-man = a man armed with a weapon.

Other common words for 'man' were guma, as in brýdguma = bridegroom (Ger. bräutigam) = the bride's man (the modern form is due to confusion with the quite different word groom, a lad); 1 beorn; ceorl, our churl (cp. the cognate carl, 2 of Old Norse origin); wer 3 (man and husband).

# 86. I. Different words for the masculine and feminine.

FATHER. BROTHER.

MOTHER. SISTER.

Father (O. E. fæder), mother (O.E. módor), brother (O.E. bróðor), sister (O.E. sweestar), are words inherited from the original Aryan language.

PAPA.

Мамма.

These words are adopted from the French. Papa descends from Latin, and is a childish doubling of the first syllable of pater. Mamma, Fr. maman, is a similar reduplication of må-ter.

Sox.

#### DAUGHTER.

Son (O.E. su-nu) = one brought forth, born (cp. bairn), from the root su, to bring forth; daughter cognate with Gr.  $\theta v \gamma d\tau \eta \rho$ .

UNCLE.

# AUNT.

Uncle is from O. Fr. uncle, oncle, from Lat. avunculus.

Aunt from O. Fr. ante, Lat. amita. The O.E. word for uncle was (i) cam (cm), Ger. ohm (oheim), (2) factora. Aunt in the oldest English was modrige; cf. Welsh modryb, aunt, Sansk. mātrkā, maternal relative.

Boy.

#### GIRL.

Boy is not found in the oldest English; it is of frequent occurrence in Middle English writers of the fourteenth century, by whom it is applied to men occupying a low position, to menial servants: it is therefore often used as a term of contempt. The term is probably of Teutonic origin, and is cognate with O. Du. boeve, Platt-Deutsch bów, Swed. bof, Ger. bube.

The O.E. word for boy was enapa (knave), Ger. knabe, whence

knave-child, a boy.

3 Wer cognate with Lat. vir.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Spenser has herd-groom = herdsman. Guma is cognate with Lat. homo.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Spenser uses carl for an old man, a churl. In O.E. we have the compound carlman = male, man. Cp. Scotch carlin, an old woman.

Gir-l is by some connected with Platt-Deutsch gör, a little child.

In writers of the fourteenth century girl was of the common gender: thus Chaucer has 'yonge girles' = young persons; and the Middle English expression knave-girle occurs in the sense of boy.

Wench is a shortened form of the M.E. wenchel, which in the 'Ormulum' is applied to Isaac, and was originally a word of the

common gender.

In a metrical version of the Old and New Testaments of the fourteenth century, in the Vernon MS., we find *mayden* and *grom* = boy and girl:—

"Ine reche whether hit beo mayden other grom."

## Bachelor. Maid.

The derivation of *bachelor*, which comes to us from the French, is uncertain; O. Fr. *bacheler* meant a servant, apprentice in arms, a knight-bachelor.

Maid=O.E. magel, magel; maiden (O.E. magel-en, of neuter gender) is a derivative.

# King. Queen.

King (O.E. cyning, cyng) is formed with the patronymic suffix ing from the word which appears in Modern English as kin. Hence its etymological sense seems to be 'one descended from a noble race.'. Quan (O.E. cw'n) at first meant wife, woman, mother.<sup>2</sup>

#### EARL. COUNTESS.

Earl (O.E. corl) originally meant simply 'a noble'; its use as a title is of Scandinavian origin.

Countess (O. Fr. contesse, cuntesse) is the feminine of the word count, the Fr. synonym of earl.

#### Monk. Nun.

Monk (O.E. munue) comes from the Greek through the Latin monachus. Friar (Middle E. frere, O.Fr. freire, Lat. frater) signifies a brother of a religious order.

Nun (O.E. nunne, nonne) from Latin nonna, a grandmother. The

first nuns would naturally be older women.3

The old English feminine for monk was mynecen, Middle English minchen.

We have the same root in Goth. mag-us, a boy; mag-abs, a young girl; O.E. mag-a, a son (cp. Irish mac), all connected with the Sansk root mah, to become great, to grow.

<sup>2</sup> Cp. Goth. qêns. O.H. Ger. chêna, a woman, wife; Eng. quean,

used only in a bad sense.

<sup>8</sup> Cp. Gr. παπαs, a priest, from papa, a father.

#### WIZARD.

#### WITCH.

Wizard from O. Fr. guise-art, guiseh-art, from an older form wisehard signifies a very wise man; the French word is of Teutonic origin, guise = Icelandic vish-r, wise. The suffix -ard is of the same origin as that in drunk-ard.

The oldest English words for wizard were drý (from the Celtic word which we have as Druid), and wigelere, one who uses wiles.

Witch in old writers is a word of the common gender. The O.E. is wicce, to which there was a corresponding masculine, wice-a.1

## SLOVEN. SLUT.

Sloven, Dutch slof = sloven.

Slut, Icel. slöttr a heavy fellow.

Stattern (= statten) probably means tattered, from the verb stit (pret. stat.)  $^{2}$ 

The following words, though apparently different, are etymologically connected:—

# NEPHEW.

# NIECE.

Nephew is from the Lat. nepos, a grandson, through the O.Fr. nevod (nief, niez), Fr. neveu.

Niece is the Fr. nièce from the Lat. neptis, a grand-daughter.

The O.E. nef-a (nephew), nef-e (niece), are cognate with nepos and

neptis, and with nephero and niece.

The O.E. forms could not, as some have suggested, have given rise to nephew or niece, but both would assume a common form, neve, which is found in O.E. writers after the Conquest.

# LORD.

# LADY.

Lord (O.E. hláford=hláf-weard) is a compound containing the suffix -weard (-ward) = keeper, guardian, as in O.E. boatward, boat-keeper. It is generally explained as loaf (O.E. hláf) -distributor.

Lady (O.E. hldfdige) = loaf-kneader.

The following appear to have become associated through their accidental resemblance in sound:-

### AD. LASS.

In Middle E. ladde is generally used in the sense of a man of an inferior station, a menial servant. It may possibly be a substantival use of the past participle of lead; one who is led.

<sup>1</sup> Cp. O.E. webb-a, a male weaver; webb-e, a female weaver.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Robert of Brunne has doude, a feminine term equivalent to slattern, for which we now write doud-y.

Lass does not occur in English writers before about A.D. 1300, and only in Northern writers. The earliest spelling is lasce. It is perhaps from the O.N. laskwa (= O. Swedish lösk in lösk kona, unmarried woman), the feminine of an adjective which appears in Icel. as löskr. Cp. ass in Northern dialects for ashes, O.E. asce, and Scotch buss = bush.

In the following pairs one of the words is a compound:—

MAN.

Woman,

See remarks on Man, p. 130, \$85.

BRIDEGROOM.

BRIDE.

See remarks on Groom, p. 131, \$85.

Notice too that the masculine is formed from the feminine.
These terms are mostly applied to newly-married persons.
"And is the bride and bridegroom coming home?"—SHAKESPEARE.

# HUSBAND. WIFE.

Husband is not the band, bond, or support of the house, as some have ingeniously tried to make out, but signified originally the master of the

house, paterfamilias.

His=house; bond=O.N. bóndi, a participial form of the verb bit-a, to inhabit, cultivate; so that bóndi = husbandman, the possessor as well as the cultivator of the soil attached to his house. Bond-men came to signify (1) peasants, (2) churls, slaves; hence the compounds hond-slave, bond-age, which have nothing to do with the verb bind, or the noun bond.

Wife was often used in older writers in the sense of woman; hence it occurs in some compounds with this meaning, as fish-wife, house-wife,

huzzy = housewife; goody = good-wife.

#### SIRE.

#### MADAM.

Sir is from O. Fr. sires, Fr. sire, Lat. senior.

Madam = Fr. madame = my lady = mea domina.

Spenser frequently uses dame in the sense of lady.

Sire and dam are still applied to the father and mother of animals.

Grandsire and beldam are sometimes found for grandfather and grandmother.

# Names of Animals.

#### BOAR.

#### Sow.

Boar (O.E. bár), originally only one of many names for the male swine. Eofor (cp. Dan. ever-swin) and bearh died out very early; the latter still survives in barrow-pig. Sow (O.E. sugu) is cognate with Lat. sus.

The general term of this species was Swine, O.E. swin, ep. swin-skde = pigsty.

Gris (grise, grice), from O.N. gris, is used by our older writers for a

young pig

Farrow = O.E. fearh = a little pig.

#### BULL.

Cow.

 $\sim$ 

Bull (Middle English bulle) is not found in the oldest English. It probably comes from the Icelandic boli.

Bullock (O. F., bulluc) is properly a little bull, a bull-calf. Cow = O. E. cu', 1 cognate with Gr. Bovs, Lat. bos, ox.

The Fr. bouf also signifies bull. The general term for the species was Ox (O.E. oxa). There were other special designations, as steer (O.E. steer), Ger. steer.

Heifer = O.E. héah-fore, heafre, of which the first syllable signifies high, great. The second element is connected with Ger. fürse, young cow. Cp. héah-déor = roe-buck.

#### BUCK

DOE.

Buck = O.E. buc and bucca; doe = O.E. dá. In O.E. hafer signifies he goat, cognate with Lat. caper; ráh, rá = roe = caprea.

 $Kid = O.N. ki\delta$ ; an O.E. word for kid was tiecen, Ger. ziek-lein.

#### HART.

ROE.

Hart, O.E. heorut, heort = horned; cp. cervus. Hind = cerva. Deer (O.E. déor) was once a general term for an animal (wild), hence Shakespeare talks of "rats and mice, and such small deer."

#### STAG.

HIND.

Stag = Icel. steggr, which was applied to the males of many species. In the English provincial dialects stag or steg = a gander or a cock. Bailey has stagg-ard, a hart in its fourth year.

#### RAM ) WETHER (

EWE.

Ram (O.E. ramm) is probably cognate with O.N. rammr, strong. Wether (O.E. weber), corresponds to Gothic wiprus, lamb; originally "a yearling animal," from the Indo-European wet-, a year (Gr. ¿ros); cp. Lat. vitulus, a calf.

Ewe (O.E. eozou, eozo), cognate with Lat. ovis.

### HOUND.

Вітси.

Hound = O.E. hund, cognate with Lat. canis.

Dog does not occur in the oldest English. It is found in the cognate dialects, O.Dan. dogge, Icel. doggr. Tike occurs sometimes in early English for a dog.

Bitch = O.E. bicc-e.

STALLION.

MARE.

Stallion (O.Fr. estalon) has supplanted the O.E. hengest and stead (steed).

Horse (O.E. hors) was originally of the neuter gender.

Mare, the feminine of an original masculine, mearh.

COLT. FOAL.

FILLY.

Foal, O.E. fola, Ger. füllen, Lat. pullus.

Cock

HEN.

Hen had a corresponding masculine, hana, in O.E.: cp. Ger. hahn and henne.

GANDER.

GOOSE.

Gander (O. E. gan-d-ra) and Goose (O. E.  $g\delta s = gons, gans$ ) are related words.

The d in gander is merely euphonic as in thunder; ra is the suffix and the root is gan = gans, a goose; cp. Icel. gas, goose; gasi, gander; also Ger. gans, Gr.  $\chi\eta\nu$ , Latin anser (= hanser).

DRAKE

Duci

Duck = O. E. doke = diver (connected with the verb to duck, Middle Dutch duiken, O.H.G. tûchan, to dive, plunge) has no etymological connection with Drake.

The word drake is cognate with L. Ger. drake; it appears compounded with O.H.G. anut (= O.E. ened) duck, in O.H.G. antrahho, whence Mod. Ger. enterich, drake.

RUFF.

REEVE.

Reeve seems a feminine of Ruff.

MILTER.

SPAWNER.

Drone.

REE

# 87. II. The Gender marked by difference of termination.

The feminine is usually formed from the masculine.

A. Obsolete modes of forming the feminine:—

(1) By the suffix -en.

In the oldest English -en was a common feminine suffix, as-

М.

Cás-ere (emperor)

For

God (a god)

Manna (man servant)

Wulf (wolf)

Cáser-n (empress). Fyx-en (vixen). Gyden (goddess).

Mennen (woman-servant).

Wylfen (she-wolf).

Fyxen, gyden do not derive directly from fox, god, for then we should have 'fexen,' 'geden,' the vowel-change of o being e (cf. § 58); the feminines of fox, god were, in Teutonic, fuhsinī, gudinī, o being changed into u before i and j; cp. Latin moneta, O.E. mynet; coquina, O.E. cycene (kitchen); monasterium, O.E. mynster. Fuhsinī and gudinī, then, were regularly changed into fyxen and gyden.

In modern English we have only preserved *one* word with this suffix—vixen.

The v in vixen is Southern, cf. § 48.

In Scotch, carl-in = an old woman.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find a few more of these feminines, as—minchen, a nun; wolvene, a she-wolf; dovene, a she-dove; schalkene, a female servant, from schalk (O.E. sceale), a manservant, which exists in marschal and seneschal.

# (2) By the suffix -ster.

In the oldest English we have a numerous class of words ending in -ster (stre, stere), corresponding to masculine forms in -ere.

М.		F.
bæc-ere	(baker)	bæc-estre.
fiðel-ere	(fiddler)	fiðel-estre.
hearp-ere	(harper)	hearp-estre.
sang-ere	(singer)	sang-estre.
séam-ere	(sewer)	séam-estre.
tæpp-ere	(bar-man)	tæpp-estre.
webb-cre	(weaver)	webb-estre.

Up to the end of the thirteenth century -ster was a characteristic sign of the feminine gender, and by its means new feminines could be always formed from the masculine.

Margravine and Landgravine contain the Romance suffix -ine (as in heroine) and not the Teutonic -in.

Lithuanian gandras, stork; gandr-enë (f.).

Sansk. Indra (name of a god); Indrant (the wife of Indra).

The Sanskrit shows that n is no mark of gender, but of possession; the f is the sign of gender, which appears in Lithuanian -enc, but is lost in the English -en, Ger. -inn.

<sup>1</sup> This suffix is found in several of the Aryan languages: cp. Ger. säng-er (singer) and sängerin; fuchs (fox) and füchs-in; Gr. ἡρωίνη, hero-ine (O.Fr. hero-ine); Latin regina.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find some curious forms,

belleringestre, a female bell-ringer.
wie-thenestre, a weekly woman-servant.
hordestre, a cellaress.
wasshestre. a washerwoman.

In the fourteenth century we find the suffix -ster giving place to the Norman-French -ess, and there is consequently a want of uniformity in the employment of this termination.

Thus Robert of Brunne uses sangster, songster, as a masculine. In Purvey's Recension of Wickliffe's translation of the Scriptures we find songstere used for the masculine singer; and Wickliffe uses webbestere as a masculine.

Daunstere (a female dancer), hotestre (hostess), tombestere (=daunstere)

are hybrid words, and etymologically as bad as sleeresse, &c.

In the 'Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode (beginning of fifteenth century), we have only one word in -ster as the name of a female, viz.

hangestre = the feminine of hangman or hangere (p. 144).

The following feminines in -ess occur in this work:—meyeresse, enquerouresse, bigilouresse, condyeresse, constablesse, jogelouresse, forgeresse, skorcheresse, enchantouresse, bacouresse, graveresse, gold-smithesse, disporteresse.

Still a good number of words with this suffix are to be found as feminines late in the fifteenth century, as—

kempster = pectrix, baxter = pistrix, webster = textrix, salster = salinaria, dryster = siccatrix, brawdster = palmaria, sewster = sutrix huxter = auxiatrix

We have now only one feminine word with this suffix, viz. spinster: but huckster was used very late as a feminine. Hucksterer and man-huckster are new masculines formed from the feminine.

When the suffix -ster was felt no longer to mark the gender, some new feminines were formed by the addition of the Romance French -ess to the English -ster, as

In the 'Ormulum' we find huccesterr = huckster, which is probably masculine.

In Wickliffe we find signs that this suffix was going out of use to mark gender in the double forms that he employs, as dwell-stere and dweller-esse, sleestere and sleeresse, daunstere and daunseresse,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Northern dialects of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries seldom employ this suffix, and it is often found, as in Robert of Brunne, in masculine nouns (marking the agent).

songstr-ess and seamstr-ess, which hybrid forms are etymologically speaking, *double* feminines.

The suffix -ster now often marks the agent with more or less a sense of contempt and depreciation, probably under the influence of the Late Latin suffix -aster in such words as pectaster; cf. the French suffix -âtre (Old French-astre) in bleuâtre, rougeâtre, &c.; as punster, trickster, gamester.

In Elizabethan writers we find drugster, hackster (swordsman), teamster, seedster (sower), throwster, rhymester, whipster, &c.

# B. Romance suffixes.

To replace the obsolete English modes of forming the feminine, several suffixes are used to mark the gender.

(1) Lat. -or (m.), and -ix (f.).

М.	F.
adjutor	adjutrix.
testator	testatrix.
&c.	&c.

(2) Romance -ine.

M.	F.
hero	heroine.
landgrave	landgravine.
margrave	margravine.

(3) Romance -a.

M.	F.
sulta	sultan-a.
signor	signor-a.
infant	infant-a.

In O.E. the Romance fem. suffix -ere is used in chambrere, Fr. chambrière = chamberwoman; lavendere = laundress. "God hath maad me (Penitence) his chaumbrere and his lavendere."—Pilgrimage.

<sup>1</sup> Howell uses hucksteress and spinstress as feminines.

uses seamster and songster to express the feminine; while Shakespeare
uses spinster sometimes as = spinner.

(4) The French -ess is, however, the ordinary feminine suffix, and the only living mode of forming fresh feminines; -ess is Med. Lat. issa, and occurs in the Old English abbud-isse = abbess.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find *contesse* = countess; *emperesse* = empress. In the fourteenth century *-ess* began to take the place of the English *-ster*, and was no doubt at first added only to Romance words; after a time it was added to Teutonic as well as to borrowed words.

In the Elizabethan period we find that it was added more frequently to distinguish the feminine than at present.

Spenser has championess, vassaless, warriouress, &c. Chapman uses heroess, butleress, waggoness, rectress, &c. (See Trench's "English Past and Present," p. 156.)

The suffix -ess is not used in Eng. to form new names of female animals; such words as lioness, tigress, &c., were taken from Old French.

(1) The suffix -ess is added to the simple masculine, as-

M. F. baron baron-ess. giant giant-ess. &c. &c.

(2) The masculine ending is dropped before the suffix, as—

M. F. cater-er cater-ess. sorcer-er sorcer-ess. &c. &c.

(3) The masculine ending (-or, -er) is shortened before the addition of -ess:—

M. F.
actor actress.
conductor conductress.
&c. &c.

(4) Duchess is from O.Fr. ducesse, duchesse; marchioness, from Med. Lat. marchio; mistress, Middle E. maisteresse, from master, Middle E. maister.

# 88. III. Gender is sometimes denoted by composition.

In the oldest English we find traces of a qualifying word compounded with a general term, as man-cild = man-child, boy; wlf-man = woman; cwtn-fugol, a female bird. In later times we find cnave-child = boy.

(1) By using the words male and female.

M. F. male-servant female-servant.

(2) By using man, woman, or maid.

M, F. man-servant maid-servant, men-singers women-singers,

Sometimes we find servant-man, servant-maid, washer-woman, milk-man, milk-maid.

(3) By the use of he and she, mostly in the names of animals.

M. F. he-goat she-goat. he-bear. she-bear.

In Shakespeare's time he and she were used as nouns; and not only did people talk of he's and she's for males and females, but even of the fairest he and the fairest she; whence he and she are also compounded with substantives, especially to convey a contemptuous or ridiculous sense, as "Howl, you he monks and you she monks."—DRANT'S Sermons.

Cp. he-devil, she-devil.

<sup>&</sup>quot;be bestes all, bath sco and he."—Cursor Mundi, 619, 10205.

<sup>&</sup>quot;A clene he-lambe."—Ibid. 6067.

- (4) Dog and bitch, as dog-fox, bitch-fox, &c.
- (5) Buck and doe, as buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit, &c.
- (6) Boar and sow, as boar-pig, sow-pig.
- (7) Ewe in ewe-lamb (Gen. xxi. 18).
- (8) Colt and filly, as colt-foal, filly-foal.
- (9) Cock and hen, as cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow.

"Take hede of those egges that be blont on bothe endes, and ther shal be henne chekens, and those that be longe and sharpe on bothe endes shal be cocke chekens."—L. ANDREWE, Babys Book, p. 222.

In names of animals the class-name is frequently treated as neuter, as "In its natural state the hedgehog is nocturnal."

So also in words denoting children without denoting the sex, as *child*, *baby*, &c.

## II. NUMBER.

89. Some languages, as Sanskrit, Greek, &c., have three numbers, *singular* (marking one object), *plural* (more than one), *dual* (two).

The oldest English had the *dual* number only in the personal pronouns, which we no longer preserve.

90. In the oldest English there were several plural endings, -as, -an, -u, -a, -o. After the Norman Conquest these were reduced (1) to -es, -en, -e; (2) to -es, -en; and finally the suffix -es or -s became the ordinary plural ending.

Thus -as was originally only the plural sign of one declension of masculine nouns, as, fisc, fish, pl. fiscas.

When -as became -es, it still remained for the most part a distinct syllable, as in the following passage in Chaucer:—

"And with his stremës dryeth in the grevës The silver dropës hongyng on the leevës." Spenser has several instances.

"In wine and oyle they wash his woundes wide."-F. Q. i. 5. 17.

Hawes has many instances of the fuller form -es, as—"The knightes all unto their armes went."—Pastime of Pleasure, p. 131.

- 91. Though we have only one plural ending, we make a very vigorous use of it. We have replaced foreign plurals by it, as insects, indexes, choruses, ethics, &c. We add it to adjectives used as substantives, as goods, evils, blacks, sweets, vitals, commons, &c.; to verbal nouns, as cuttings, scrapings, &c.; and to pronouns, as others, noughts.
- 92. The reduction of **-es** to **-s** causes the suffix to come into direct contact with the last letter of the substantive to which it is added, and by which it is affected.
- (a) If the substantive ends in a voiced mute, a liquid, or a vowel, s is pronounced voiced as tubs, lads, stags, hills, hens, feathers, trees, days, folios.
- (b) If the substantive ends in a breath mute, s takes the breath sound, as traps, pits, stacks.
- (c) The fuller form -es is retained when the substantive ends in "hisses and buzzes" such as ss, sh, x, ch; as glasses, wishe, foxess, churches, ages, judges.
- (d) Words of pure English origin ending in f, fe, ff, with a preceding long vowel (except oo) make their plurals in

While we can talk of our betters, our superiors, we cannot, like Heywood, speak of our olders and biggers, nor complain, with the author of 'The Booke of Nurture,' of not knowing our "breefes from longes" = short and long vowels. Cp. "my worthies and my valiants."

-Örant.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There is an inconvenience attached to these plurals, i.e. they have more than one meaning: thus, blacks is used for black eyes (TREVISA), black draperies (BACON), sooty particles, and black-a-moors, i.e. black Moors; there were also white Moors. Cp. familiars = familiar friends and familiar spirits.

-ves, pronounced -vz, as leaf, leaves; thief, thieves; wife, wives; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves.

In roof, hoof, reef, the f is retained and s only added. We sometimes find elfs, instead of elves.

(e) In Romance words f remains unchanged, and the plural is formed by s, as briefs, chiefs, griefs, fifes, strifes.

Exceptions.—In Middle English we find prooves, kerchieves, beeves.

(f) Words ending in -ff, -rf, form the plural by the addition of s, and the f is left unchanged, as diff, diffs; dwarf, dwarfs.

We sometimes find staves, wharves, dwarves, scarves, mastives, written for staffs, dwarfs, wharfs, scarfs, mastiffs; and in old writers, turves for turfs. In Rastall's Chronicles, 1529, we find torves, pl. of turf. Turves occurs several times in Thomas Hardy's novel 'The Return of the Native.'

(g) Words terminating in a single y keep the old orthography, and y is changed into i, as fly, flies; city, cities.

In earlier English the singular ended in .ie, as flie, citie.

Y remains unchanged if it is preceded by another written vowel, and s (pronounced z) only is added, as boy, boys; play, plays; valley, valleys.

Until recently vallies, monkies, pullies, &c., were not uncommon; monies is still often found, though avoided by careful writers. Alkali has for its plural alkalies.

(h) Words in -o (not those in -io), mostly of foreign origin, form the plural in -es (sounded as z), as echoes, heroes, potatoes.

Words in -io add s, as folios, seraglios.

A few of later origin in -o and -oo add s, as dominos, grottos, tyros, cuckoos, Hindoos.

- (i) Particles used as substantives take -s or -es for their plural, as ups and downs; ayes and noes (or aye's and no's); the O's and Macs; pros and.cons; et-ceteras.
- (j) In compounds the plural is formed by s, as blackbirds, paymasters.

When the adjective (after the French method) is the last part of the compound, the sign of the plural is added to the substantive, as attorneys-general, courts-martial. So in prepositional compounds, as sons-in-law, fathers-in-law, lookers-on, men-of-war.

(k) When full is compounded with a noun, s is added to the last element, as handfuls, cupfuls; but not if the terms are kept distinct, as "two handfuls of marbles;" "we have our hands full of work."

In Old English such forms as handful, shipful were mostly regarded as adjective compounds, and did not take the plural sign.

# 93. Plural formed by vowel-change-

foot,	O.E.	f31 ;	plural	feet,	O.	fit.
tooth,	O.E.	t68;	plural	teeth,	O.	æð.
mouse,	O.E.	mús;	plural	mice,	O	mýs.
louse,	O.E.	lús ;	plural	lice,	O.	lýs.
goose,	O.E.	gos;	plural	geese	O.	
man,	O.E.	man;	plural	men,	Ο,	

All these words once had a plural ending. The vowel of the plural suffix, though lost, has left its influence in the change of the root-vowel; ep. O.Sax.  $f\delta ti = \text{feet}$ ,  $b\delta ci = \text{O.E.}$   $b\delta c = \text{books}$ .

See remarks on Vowel-change, § 58.

# 94. Plurals in -en (O.E. -an).

There was, in O.E., as well as in the other Teutonic languages, a declension exactly answering to that of ἡγεμών in Greck, homo in Latin.

Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Old English.
ἡγεμών	homo 2	hana <sup>3</sup> (cock)	han-a
ήγεμ-όν-os	hom-in-is	han-in-s	han-an
ήγεμ-όν-ι	hom-in-i	han-in	han-an
ήγεμ-όν-α	hom-in-em	han-an	hanan
ήγεμ-όν-ες	hom-in-es	han-an-s	han-an
ήγεμ-όν-ων	hom-in-um	han-an-e	han-en-a
$η \gamma \epsilon \mu \cdot \delta \cdot \sigma \iota^{1}$	hom-in-ibus	han-am (from han-an-am)	han-um
ήγεμ-όν-ας	hom•in-es	han-an-s	han-an

(1) There were a larger number of these words in the oldest English which formed the plural in -an; only one of these plurals is now in common use, oxen = O.E. ox-an.

Shoon, O.E. genitive plural sceóna, and hosen, O.E. hosan, are more or less obsolete.

Spenser frequently uses eyen = O.E. éagan, Provincial English een; and foen = O.E. fán, foes.

(2) Some words that now form their plural in n had originally plurals ending in a vowel, to which n has been added.

Kine.—The e is no part of the plural, as we find in Middle English kin and ken. Cow originally made its plural by vowel-change, O.E. cú, a cow, plural cý. Cp. O.E. mús (mouse), mýs (mice).

In Middle English we find ky, kye, kine, still preserved in the North of England.

Child-r-e-n is an interesting relic of what was once a peculiar declension. Corresponding to nouns like  $\gamma \acute{e}v$ -os in Greek, gen-us in Latin, there were nouns in O.E. which were formed by the suffix -r (from Germanic -z, Indo-European -s), such as salor (hall), a variant of sele, dógor (day), a variant of dæg, sigor (victory), a variant of sige. But while in these nouns the old suffix r appears both in singular and plural, others dropped it in the singular, and kept it in the

<sup>1</sup> From ἡγεμ-όν-σι

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From hom-on.

<sup>3</sup> From hanan.

plural, as in lomb (lamb)—lombru (lambs), cealf (calf)—cealfru, &g (egg)—&gru, cild (child)—cildru.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find *cild-r-u* converted into (1) *child-r-e* and (2) *child-r-e-n*.

In the fourteenth century we find in the Northern dialects childer = children, where the -re has become -er (cp. O.E. ealra = (1) alre, (2) aller, (3) alder).

In Middle-English of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find calvren, lambren, and eyren (eggs).<sup>1</sup>

Brethren.—In the oldest English the plural of bróþer was bróðru (bróðra). In the thirteenth century this became (1) brothr-e, (2) brothr-e-n (brotheren), (3) brethr-e, (4) brethr-e-n, (5) brotheres (brothers).

In the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century we find brethre becoming brether.<sup>2</sup>

The e in brethren seems to have arisen from the dative singular (brether).

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, we find that the oldest English dohtry became dohtren, doughtren, dehtren, and dester.

Sister and mother once belonged to the same declension.

Treen = O.E. tréow-u is used by Sackville ("Induction")  $^3$ :—

"The wrathful Winter, 'proaching on apace, With blustering blasts had all ybar'd the treen."

95. Some words, originally neuter and flexionless in the plural, have the same form for the singular and the plural.

- 1. Deer = O.E. déor, pl. déor.
- 2. Sheep = O.E. scéap, pl. scéap.

These be my mother, brether, and sisters."—Bp. PILKINGTON

(died 1575).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. Caxton's story of a Mr. Sheffield who asked for eggs at the Foreland, and could not get them, because nobody knew what he meant by it; "at last another sayd that he wolde have eyren, then the good wyf sayd that she understod hym wel."—CAXTON'S Eneydos, Prologue.

<sup>3</sup> Sistren occurs in the Fardell of Facion (1555).

- 3. Swine = O.E. swin, pl. swin.
- 4. **Neat** = O.E. *néat* (used collectively to include steer, heifer, calf).<sup>1</sup>

This class once included the following words:—folk, year, yoke, head, score, pound, hair, horse,<sup>2</sup> &c.

- 96. Many substantives are treated as plurals and take no plural sign, as—
- (1) Words used in a collective sense: cavalry, infantry, harlotry, fish, fowl, cattle, poultry.

Capgrave uses *gander* as a plural. In the *Fardell of Facion* we read that "*quail* and *mallard* are not but for the richer sort."

(2) Names expressive of quantity, mass, weight (when preceded by numerals), as: pair, brace, couple, dozen, score, gross, quire, ream, stone, tun, last, foot, fathom, mile, chaldron, bushel.

Also cannon, shot, shilling, mark; rod, and furlong (Fardell of Facion).

In the phrase horse and foot we have either a contraction of (a) horsemen and footmen, or of (b) men on horse (Middle E. men an horse) and men on foot (Middle E. men a foot).

97. Some substantives have a double plural form, with different meaning, as—

Brothers (by blood), brethren 3 (of an order of community). Cloths (sorts of cloth); clothes (garments, clothing). Dies (a stamp for coining, &c,); dice (for gaming).

2 "Tame and well-ordered horse, but wild and unfortunate children."

-ASCHAM.

<sup>1</sup> In earlier E. goat is treated as a plural:—"Jabel departed the flokkis of scheep from the flokkis of goot."—CAPGRAVE, p. 8. Also worm:—, "All kindes of beastes, fowle, and worme."—Fardell of Facion.

<sup>3</sup> This distinction is, of course, comparatively recent

Peas (the pl. of pea); pease (collective). Pea, O.E. pisa, is derived from Lat. pisum. In O.E. we find pl. pesen (and peses). The s belongs to the root, and is no inflexion. When the old pl. ending was lost, pease was looked upon as a plural, and a new singular, pea, was coined.

Pennies (a number of separate coins); pence (collective). Penny, O.E. penig, pl. penegas (pennyes, pans, pens), without any distinction of meaning. When pence is compounded with a numeral as the name of a separate coin, we can regard it as a singular, and make it take the plural inflexion, as two sixpences.

98. Foreign words usually take the English plural. Some few keep their original plural, as—

	Sing.	Plural.
Latin (1)	arcanum	arcana.
	add <b>endu</b> m	addenda.
	da <b>tu</b> m	dat <b>a.</b>
•	crratum	errata.
	stratum	strata.
	magus	magi.
	radius	radii.
	minutia	minutix.
	species	species.
	&c.	&c.
Lat. from Greek (2)	axis	axes.
, ,	basis	bases.
	ellipsis	ellipses.
	&c.	&c.
Romanic (3)	monsieur	messieurs.
(3)	bandit	banditti.
	&c.	&c.
Hebrew (4)	cherub	cherubim.
- ' \T'	scraph	scraphim.
·		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Spenser has—

"Not worth a pese."

Surrey-

"a pese Above a pearl in price."

<sup>&</sup>quot;Not worth two peason" = peasen.

Some of these have the English plural, as—appendixes, calixes, vortexes, criterions, automatons, phenomenons, memorandums, spectrums, focuses, funguses, similes, beaus, seraphs, cherubs, as well as their original plurals, appendices, calices, vortices, criteria, automata, phenomena, memoranda, spectra, foci, fungi, similia, beaux, seraphim, cherubim (and seraphin, cherubin).<sup>1</sup>

- 99 Some have two plurals with different meanings, as—
  indexes (of a book) indices (signs in algebra).
  geniuses (men of genius) genii (spirits, supernatural beings).
  - 100. Many substantives are used only in the plural, as-
- (1) Substantives denoting things that consist of more than one part, and consequently always express plurality, as—
- (a) Parts of the body: lights (a synonym of lungs; the latter, however, has a singular), entrails, chitterlings.
  - (b) Clothing: breeches, slops, trowsers, drawers.
- (c) Tools, instruments, implements, &c.: shears, scissors, pliers, snuffers, tongs, scales, &c. (Shakespeare uses ballance as a plural. "A peyre of ballaunce."—DRANT.)
- (2) Names of things considered in the mass or aggregate, as—embers, lees, molasses.

Many foreign words are used only in the plural, as aborigines, fuces, literati, prolegomena, &c.

101. The English plural sign sometimes replaces the original plural, as nomads, pleiads, hyads, rhinoceroses.

Of a similar kind are-

<sup>1</sup> Cherubims and seraphims occur in Elizabethan English.

abstergents (=abstergentia). analects (=analecta). arms (=arma). annals (=annales), &c

102. The plurals of some substantives differ in meaning from the singulars, as antic, antics; beef, beeves; chap, chaps; draught, draughts; checker, checkers; forfeit, forfeits; record, records; scale, scales; spectacle, spectacles; grain, grains; ground, grounds; water, waters; copper, coppers; iron, irons; compass, compasses; return, returns; &c. &c.

So too verbal substantives, as cutting and cuttings; sweeping and sweepings, &c.

regularly, as good, goods; captive, captives; lunatic, lunatics; cp. commons, eatables, betters, superiors, odds, extras.

To this class, with English plural substituted for foreign adjective plural, belong acoustics, analytics, ethics, optics, politics.

as amends, bellows, gallows, means, news, odds, pains, sessions, shambles, small-pox, tidings, wages.

Most of these are comparatively late plurals, and the singular was once used where we employ the plural.

105. Alms, eaves, riches, though treated as plurals, are singular in form.

<sup>2</sup> Middle E. "a gret belygh;" "a peyre belyes."—Pilgrimage, pp. 111. 116.

 $^3$  O.E. pl. = galgan.

Odds in it is odds = it is most probable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Amends from Fr. amende. Robert of Brunne has "the amends was."

Means (Fr. moyen, Lat. medium).
News (Fr. nouvelles, Lat. nova).

<sup>7</sup> In the singular pain = suffering; in the plural = sufferings, trouble.

<sup>8 ·</sup> Pox = -poc-s; as in chicken-pock, pock-mark.
9 Tidings. O.E. tidende. The plural is rare in O.E.

Alms = Gr.  $\epsilon \lambda \epsilon \eta \mu \omega \omega \psi \eta$ ; O.E.  $\omega lmesse$ , almesse, almess. In O.E. we find pl. elmessen, almesses.

Riches = O.Fr. richesce; Middle English richeise, richesse. In Middle English we find pl. richesses. Alms and riches are etymologically no more plurals than are largess and noblesse.

Eaves = O.E. yfes, efese = margin, edge.

We sometimes find esen-droppers = eaves-droppers; esen = M.E. efesen, eaves.

- 106. **Summons** is a singular form (= O.Fr. semonse; Middle English somons), and is usually treated as such, making the pl. summonses.
- 107. Proper names form the plural regularly, except where a plural form is adopted from the foreign language to which the name belongs, as *Horatius*, the *Horatii*.
- 108. Designations of nationality which were originally adjectives take no plural sign if ending in a sibilant, as *Dutch*, *English*, *Scotch*, *Chinese* (but Milton has *Chineses*).
- 109. In designations of persons formed by two substantives, the former having a qualifying function, only the last adds s for the plural, as master bakers, brother squires, the two doctor Johns.

We, however, may say the Miss Browns or the Misses Brown.

Where two titles are united the last now usually takes the plural, as major-generals: a few old expressions sometimes occur in which both words, following the French idiom, take the plural, as knights-templars, lords-lieutenants, lords-justices.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. "he asked an alms." (Acts iii. 3.) "All a common riches."

—JOHN FLETCHER, Wit without Money.

110. Many geographical names are frequently plural in form, as Athens, Thebes (but these are singular in construction), the Netherlands, Indies, Azores, Alps.

## III. CASE.

111. In some languages nouns (substantives and adjectives) take different forms (cases) in different relations in a sentence.

The movable or variable terminations of a noun are called its *case-endings*.

"At Athens, the term case, or ptosis, had a philosophical meaning; at Rome, casus was merely a literal translation; the original meaning of fall was lost, and the word dwindled down to a mere technical term. In the philosophical language of the Stoics, ptosis, which the Romans translated by casus, really meant 'fall'; that is to say, the inclination or relation of one idea to another, the falling or resting of one word on another. Long and angry discussions were carried on as to whether the name of ptosis, or fall, was applicable to the nominative; and every true Stoic would have scouted the expression of casus rectus, because the subject, or the nominative, as they argued, did not fall or rest on anything else, but stood erect, the other words of a sentence leaning or depending on it. All this is lost to us when we speak of cases."—MAX MULLER.

112. The oldest English had six cases: Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Instrumental.

The suffixes forming cases descend from the original Aryan language, but their forms in Old English are in most instances greatly changed from the primitive type.

The nominative ending was s (as in rex = reg-s).

The dative suffix was originally a diphthong ending in -i.

The ablative termination was d, as Sansk. acvat (for  $-\bar{a}d$ ) = O. Lat. equod, from a horse.

The locative had the ending i.

The instrumental, expressing the relation by or with, ended in a or mi.

The accusative had the letter m for its suffix.

The genitive had two endings, -es (-os, -s), and -sio (-so).

"The Latin genitivus (genitive) is a mere blunder, for the Greek word genike could never mean genitivus. Genitivus, if it is meant to

express the case of origin or birth, would in Greek have been called genitike, not genike. Nor does the genitive express the relation of son to father. For though we may say 'the son of the father,' we may likewise say, 'the father of the son.' Genike, in Greek, had a much wider, a much more philosophical meaning. It meant casus generaling, the general case, or rather the case which expresses the genus or kind. This is the real power of the genitive. . . . The termination of the genitive is, in most cases, identical with those derivative suffixes by which substantives are changed into adjectives."—Max MÜLLER.

# Possessive Case.

113. The O.E. case-endings gradually dwindled into one, namely the possessive, representing the old genitive case. This decay of the case-endings was brought about by the change of the vowels a, o, u into e, and by the dropping of final n, in consequence of which changes the cases of a great many substantives were no longer distinguishable from one another. Thus, for instance, the O.E. feminine lufu (love) had the following declension:—

Sing.	Plural.
N. lufu	N. lufa.
G. lufe	G. lufa.
D. lufe	D. lufum
A. lufe	A. lufa.

In consequence of a and u becoming e in Middle English, and further of -um (dative) becoming first -em, then -en, and, lastly, -e, all the cases of lufu were alike. This change took place in all the feminine substantives of the  $\bar{a}$ -declension and of other substantives, e.g. in sunu (son).

The only endings which survived the general decay were the genitive sing. (-es) and the nominative and accusative plural (-es) of substantives belonging to the o-declension, and the gen. plural of substantives belonging to the n-declension, as will be seen from the following instances.

Old E.	
Sing.	Plural.
N. smið	smið-as.
G. smið-cs	smið-a.
D. smið-e	smið-um
A. smið	smið-as.

The nominative and accusative have now no flexional suffixes to distinguish them, and their position in a sentence, or the sense, is the only means we have of distinguishing them from one another.

114. In the oldest English there were various declensions, as in Latin and Greek: so there were different genitive suffixes (a) for the singular, (b) for the plural.

The suffix es originally belonged to the genitive sing. of some masculine and neuter substantives; it was not the genitive sign of the feminine until the eleventh century, and then for the most part only in the Northern dialect (cp. Lady-day with Lord's day).

If we apply the above-mentioned changes, namely that of a, u into e, and the dropping of m (n), we get the following forms:—

Sing.	Plural.
N. smith	smith-ës.
G. smith-es	smith-(e).
D. smith-(e)	smith-(e).
A. smith	smith-es.

The declension of *nefa* (belonging to the n-declension) was:—

Sing.	Plural.
N. nefa (nephew)	nef-an.
G. nef-an	nef-ena.
D. nef-an	nef-um.
A. nef-an	nef-an.

Again applying the same changes, we get in Middle English:—

Sing.	Plural.
N. nef-e	nef-e (n)
G. nef-e	nef-ene.
D. nef-e	nef-e (n)
A. nef-e	nef-e (n)

So that only the ending of the gen. plural remains. In order to make up for the want of marked endings, the remaining suffixes -ës and -ene were extended to all the substantives, so that there was no longer any difference between masculine, feminine or neuter. In the second half of the fourteenth century, the ending -ene was supplanted by -ès.

Late in the fourteenth century we find traces of the old plural ending -ene, -en (-ena), as kingen-en = of kings. (Piers | Plowman.)

Probably before the thirteenth century -es began to take its place:—

- "Alre louerdes louerd, and alre kingene king."—O.E. Hom., Second Series.
- 115. The suffix -es was a distinct syllable in earlier English, as-
  - "Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre."-CHAUCER.

Traces of this form we have in Elizabethan writers:-

"Then looking upward to the heaven's beams,
With nightës stars thick powder'd everywhere."

SACKVILLE'S Induction.

"Of aspës sting herself did stoutly kill."—SPENSER, F. Q. i. 5, 50.
"To show his teeth as white as whales bone."
SHAKESPEARE'S Love's Labour's Lost, v. 2.

numbers; and it is subject to the same euphonic modifications as the sign of the plural (see § 86).

The loss of the vowel of the original suffix -es is indicated by the apostrophe ('), as boy's, &c. In the case of words of

one or two syllables ending in a sibilant, the suffix is pronounced as if it were -es, but is written as 's, as James's, judge's, justice's.

When a word in the singular of more than two syllables ends in s, x, ge, s is omitted but (') retained, as—Lycurgus' sons, Socrates' wife.

In poetry this frequently happens with respect to words of more than one syllable, especially if the following word begins with a sibilant, as—

The Cyclops' hammer; young Paris' face; your highness' love; for justice sake; for praise sake; the Phwnix' throne; a purtridge' wing (Shakespeare); princess' favourite (Congreve); the Prior of Jorvauly' question (W. Scott).

In Middle English, fifteenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant or was followed by a word beginning with a sibilant, the possessive sign was dropt, as a goose egg, the river side. That is to say, in such cases composition was substituted for syntactical connexion.

To plurals ending in s no possessive suffix is added; the plural possessive and nominative in these words are, in pronunciation, of identical form; but the notion that a suffix has been elided has in modern times given rise to the practice of appending an apostrophe after the s, as lords', ladies'.

117. In compounds the suffix is attached to the last element, as—the son-in-law's house; the heir-at-law's will; the Queen of England's reign; Henry the First's reign.

Sometimes we find s added to the principal substantive instead of to the attributive or appositional word, as "It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant general."—SHAKS. "For the Queen's sake, his sister."—BYRON. This was the ordinary construction as late as the sixteenth century. "Stephen concluded a marriage atween Eustace his sone and Constaunce the kynges sister of Fraunce" [=the king of France's sister].—FABYAN.

118. It is worth remarking that throughout the Middle English period, and even in the first half of the sixteenth century, not only such substantives as in O.E. had formed the genitive without -es, as lady, father, but also others, especially proper names, occur without any ending whatever.

Abram wif (Abraham's wife): The Story of Genesis and Exodus, I. 780.

Uryn son: -Sir Gawayne and the Greene Knight, 1. 113.

Cham...hadde his fader cors: - Trevisa, Higden, i. 121.

Charlot horse: - Lord Berners, Huon de Burdeux, p. 24.

a spere lenge (the length of a spear):—Sir Gawayne and the Greene Knight, 1. 2316.

for god merci:-Caxton, The Four Sonnes of Aymon, 431; 450.

In the last instance, as in others, French influence may have been at work.

119. The use of his instead of the genitival ending occurs at first after proper names.

"bá we gesáwon Enac his cynryn" (we saw the children of Anac there).—Numeri, xiii. 29.

"Argal his brother."-LAYAMON, i. 279.

"Decius Cesar his tyme."—TREVISA, i. 39.

But in the second half of the thirteenth century there are already instances of common nouns followed by his, instead of the inflectional -s.

"Urne be teares uppe be king his leores" (the tears ran down the king's cheeks).—LAYAMON, Second Version, iii. 214.

" be bissop his brober."-Ib. ii. 276.

# THE CASE ABSOLUTE.

120. In the oldest English the dative was the absolute case, just as the ablative is in Latin. About the middle of the fourteenth century the nominative began to replace it. Milton has a few instances of this construction (in imitation of the Latin idiom), as "me overthrown," "us dispossessed," "him destroyed."

- "Schal no flesch upon folde by fonden onlyue, Out-taken yow a5t (eight)."—Allit. Poems, p. 47, l. 357.
- "Thei han stolen him us slepinge."-WICKLIFFE, Matt. xxviii. 21.
- "Hym dá gyt sprecendum, hig cómon fram dam héah-gesamnungum (while he yet spake, they came from the synagogue)."—Mark v. 35.
- "Sinre dura belocenre, bide Sine fæder (when thou hast shut thy door, pray to thy father)."—Matt. vi. 6.

Cp. Historical Outlines of English Syntax, §§ 56, 57, 153.

## CHAPTER XII

# ADJECTIVES

- 121. In modern English the adjective has lost the inflexions of *number*, *gender*, or *case* belonging to the older stages of the language.
- 122. In Chaucer's time, and even later, we find (a) an inflexional e to mark the plural number; (b) an inflexional e for the definite adjective—that is, when preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or a possessive pronoun, as—
  - "Whan Zephirus eek with his sweetë breethe Enspired hath in every holte and heethe The tendrë croppes, and the yongë sonne Hath in the Ram his halfë cours ironne, And smalë fowles maken melodie."

CHAUCER'S Prol. to C. Tales.

This e in the oblique cases of the definite form, in the oldest English, was an, of which, perhaps, we have a trace in the phrase "in the olden time."

We often replace an inflexional e or n by the word e. Cp.

- "And the children ham lovic togidere and bevly the velagrede of the greaten."—Azenbite, p. 739.
- "The vissere hath more blisse vor to nime ane gratne visse thane ane littlene."—Ib. p. 238.
  - "These tweyne olde" (= these two old ones).—Pilgrimage, p. 111.

- "I sigh toward the tour an old oon 1 that come and neihede me."—
  16. p. 23.
  - "I sigh an old oon that was clumben anhy up on thy bed."—Ib. 205.
- 123. Chaucer has instances of the Norman-French plural s in such phrases as cosins germains, in other places delitables.

In Middle E. the adjective of Romanic origin frequently took a plural termination (-cs, -s) when placed after its substantive, as—

- "Wateres principales."-Early Eng. Poems, p. 43.
- "Vertues cardinals." Castele of Love, p. 37.
- "Chanouns reguleres," "causes resonables," "parties meridionales."

  MAUNDEVILLE.
- 124. It is also found without a following substantive, as—
  - "Of romances that been reales
    Of popes and cardinales."—CHAUCER's Sir Thopas.
- "He ous tekth to knawe the greate things vram the little, the freciouses vram the viles, the zuete vram the zoure."—Azenbite, p. 76.

In this last example the unborrowed adjectives greate, little, &c., express the plural by the final e.

Sometimes the plural s replaces the final e when the adjective is used substantively, as—

"They love their yonges very well."-LAWRENCE ANDREWE.

Ones sometimes replaces the plural sign, as "If it fortuned one of the yonges to due than these olde ones wyll burye them."—1b.

Cp. wantons, empties, calms, shallows, worthies, orderlies, godlies.

125. Shakespeare has preserved one remnant of the older case-endings of the plural adjective in the compound alderliefest = the dearest of all, the most precious of all. (2 K. Hen. VI. i. 1.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The writer of the *Pilgrimage* only uses the *oon* when the adjective is accusative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Stow has heyres males = male heirs. A curious modern use of the plural suffix with an adjective is found in "The Revs. A.B. and C.D."

Alder (sometimes written alther) is another form of aller =  $al \cdot rc$  =  $al \cdot ra$  (= omnium), the genitive plural of all.

In English writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, we find bath-er, of both, for which we sometimes find bothes, as "your bothes paynes."—Pilgrimage, p. 167.

## I. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

126. Comparison is a variation or change of form to denote degrees of quantity or quality. It belongs to adverbs as well as adjectives.

"The suffixes of comparison were once less definite in meaning than at present, and were used to form many numerals, pronouns, adverbs, prepositions, in which compared correlative terms are implied."—MARCH.

127. There are three degrees of comparison: the positive, high; the comparative, higher; the superlative, highest.

The comparative is formed by adding -cr to the positive; the superlative by adding -cst to the positive.

This rule applies to (1) nearly all monosyllabic adjectives; (2) many dissyllabic adjectives, the chief exceptions being those ending in -al, -ed, -est, -ful, -ic, -ish, -ive, -osc, -ous, which in the modern language are usually compared in the manner described in § 128. For dissyllabic adjectives comparison with -er, -est, is merely optional, and it is only in the case of those in very frequent use that this method is much more common than the other.

## Orthographical changes:-

- (1) A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled, as wet, wetter, wettest; red, redder, reddest. The final l after an unaccented vowel is also doubled, as in cruel, crueller, cruellest.
- (2) A single final y is changed to i, as happy, happier, happier, but y with a preceding vowel remains unchanged, as gayer, gayest.
- (3) Adjectives ending in a silent e add r and st, instead of cr and st, to the positive, as polite, politer, politest; noble, nobler, noblest.

128. When the adjective has more than two syllables, the comparison is expressed by *more* and *most*, as—*eloquent*, *more eloquent*, *most eloquent*. Adjectives of two syllables may be compared in the same manner, and many of them are never compared otherwise (see § 127).

This mode of comparison is probably due to Norman-French influence, and it makes its appearance at the end of the thirteenth century, as "mest genty!" (ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER), and becomes of frequent occurrence in Chaucer and Wickliffe, as most mighty, most clear.

In poetry we find even monosyllabic adjectives compared (for the sake of cuphony) by *more* and *most*, as "Ingratitude *more strong* than traitors' arms" (Shakespeare). "Upon a lowly asse *more white* than snow" (Spenser).

The rules determining the choice between the two methods of comparison are not by any means strictly followed by writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in poetry and rhetorical prose are still often set aside:—

"Ascham writes inventivest: Bacon, honourablest and ancienter; Fuller, eminentest, eloquenter, learnedst, solemnest, famousest, virtuousest, with the comparative and superlative adverbs, wiselier, easilier, hardliest; Sidney even uses refiningest; Coleridge, safeliest."—Marsh.

129. Double Comparisons are not uncommon both in early and modern English, as more hottere, most fairest (Maundeville); moost clennest (Piers Plowman); more kinder, more corrupter (Shakespeare); most straitest (Acts of Apostles, xxvi. 5).

The comparison is sometimes strengthened by adverbs or phrases, as still busier, far wiser, the lowest of the low. So Chaucer has fairest of faire (Knightes Tale).

Adjectives with a superlative sense are not usually compared. In Poetry, we find, however, *perfectest, chiefest* (Shakespeare), *extremest* (Milton), *more perfect* (Eng. Bible), *lonelier* (Longfellow).

130. The r of the comparative stands for a more original s, as seen in the allied languages of the Aryan speech. In hinder, inner, however, the r is original; the suffix in these two words coincides only by accident with the -er of other comparatives.

The superlative was originally formed from the comparative by means of the suffix -t.

- 131. In numerals and pronominal words, &c. we find a relic of an old comparative, as in other, Lat. al-ter; Gr. ἔ-τερο-ς; Sansk. άn-tará; 1 whether, Lat. u-ter; Gr. κό-τερο-ς; Sansk. ka-tará. By Sanskrit grammarians the origin of -tara (= Gr. -τερο-, Eng. -ther) is said to be found in the Sanskrit root tar (cp. Lat. trans, Eng. through), to cross over, go beyond.
- 132. An old superlative ending common to many of the Aryan languages is -mo, as—Eng. for-ma, fru-ma (primitive Teut. formo-n-); Lat. pri-mu-s; Sansk. pra-tha-má.

### II. IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

133. OLD, ELDER, ELDEST (O.E. eald, ald; yldra, eldra: yldest, eldest).

Elder and eldest are archaic, and can only be used with reference to living things.<sup>2</sup> As than cannot be used after elder, it is evident that its full comparative force is lost.

Older and oldest are the ordinary comparatives now in use.

The vowel change in *elder*, &c. is explained by the fact that there was originally an i before r and st, which affected the preceding a or ca, hence O.E. cald and cldra, strang and strengra, &c.

134. Good, Better, Best (O.E. gód; betera, betra; betest, betst).

The comparative and superlative are from a root bal, good, found in O.E. bét-an (derived from bót, boot, amendment), to make good, amend.

<sup>1</sup> The English word is etymologically identical with the Sanskrit, but not with the Latin and Greek synonyms,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This distinction is recent: cp. the following from Earle's Microcosmographie (1628): "His very atyre is that which is the eldest out of fashion." (Ed. Arber, p. 29.)

**Best** = bet-st, illustrates the law that a dental is assimilated to a following sibilant.

In O.E. we find a comparative adverb, bet (the sign of inflexion being lost).

Bad probably derives from O.E. bæddel, hermaphrodita, bædling, an effeminate person.

Worse, O.E. wyrsa, from wiers-sa from wirsiza (Goth. wairsiza), formed with comparative suffix -iz from a root wers, found in Ger. ver-wirren, to confuse.

The Dan. vierre (O.N. verri) found its way into English writers of the North of England. Gower uses it in the following lines:

"Of thilke werre (war)

In whiche none wot who hath the werre (worse)."

Spenser uses it with reference to the etymology of the word world:

"The world is much war than it was woont,"

Chaucer sometimes uses badder for worse.

Worst (O.E. wyrst, wyrrest) is from the same source.

136. MUCH, MORE, MOST (O.E. micel, mára, miest).

Much is from O.E. micel (Gothic mikils, akin with Greek μέγ-αs, μεγάλ-ου), which became later on mycel, and in the South-west Middle English muchel.

More is from O.E. má-ra, which answers to Gothic ma-iza, the ending -iza being the comparative suffix, as in bat-iza, O.E. bet-(e)ra (better). The adverb mo(e), O.E. má, is often used adjectively in Middle English and Elizabethan writers.

Many = O.E. maneg, Goth. manags, Ger. manch; its ultimate etymology is obscure.

137. LITTLE, LESS, LEAST. O.E. lytel; lássa (lás); læsest, læst.

> les-s = M.E. las-se, les-se = lds-sa = lds-ra. least = les-st = ldes-est.

Lesser is a double comparative, as "the lesser light" (Eng. Bible). Shakespeare has littlest (Hamlet, iii, 2).

In O.E. we find lit = little, which has nothing to do with the root of less, which is cognate with Goth. lasizeoza (infirmior), the comp. of lasiw-s (infirmus).

We also find in O.E. min = O.N. minni. Goth. minniza = less. Lat. min-or: Goth, mins = Lat, minus.

138. NEAR, NEARER, NEAREST. O.E. néah, néh; nýra, néar, néarra; néalist, nést. Later forms of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were-negh; nerre (ner); next (neghest).

By the Old English forms we see that nigh, near, next, are their proper representatives. Shakespeare uses near 1 as a comparative adverb.

Nea-r = neah-r; next = negh-st or neah-st. (The guttural of course was once pronounced.)

High was once similarly compared—héah (heh, hegh); héhra, hérra (herre); healist, hehst (heghest, heat).2

**Near**, for negh or nigh, first came into use in the phrase 'far and near,' in which near is an adverb, and represents the oldest English neorran = near (adv.), analogous to feorran = afar.

1 "The nere to the Church the ferther from God."—HEYWOOD'S Proverbs, C.

"The near in blood the nearer bloody,"—Macbeth, ii. 3.

<sup>2</sup> "When bale is hekst boote is next."—HEYWOOD'S Proverbs, E. iii, back,

Hawes (Past of Pl. p. 60) uses the old ferre:—

" My mynde to her was so ententyfe That I followed her into a temple ferre, Replete with joy, as bright as any sterre." In this we see the positive is replaced by an *adverb*, and not by the comparative adjective, as is usually supposed.

Nearer, nearest, are formed regularly from near.

139. FAR, FARTHER, FARTHEST. O.E. feor, fyrra, fyrrest, Later forms, fer, ferre (ferrer), ferrest.

Farther is for fareer; the th seems to have crept in from false analogy with further. Farthest = farest. Further = O.E. furder = ulterius, the comparative of furth = forth.

1.40. Later, later, latest (O.E. late, lator, latest); late, latter, last (O.E. late-mest = last).

Last = O.E. latst: cp. best = betst.

Latter and last refer to order, as 'the latter alternative;' 'the last of the Romans.'

Later and latest refer to time. This distinction is not always strictly observed by our poetical writers.

141. RATHER. The positive and superlative are obsolete.

Rathe was the positive, as "the *rathe* primrose" (Milton): here *rathe* means early.

Rather means sooner, and is now used where *liefer* was once employed.

The O.E. forms were hræð (ready), hræðra, hræðost.

## 142. Adjectives containing the superlative m.

The Old English for-m-a signifies first, the superlative of a root fore. Fyrm-est = for-m-ost also had the same meaning, but is a double superlative.

First (O.E. fyrrest, fyrst) is the regular superlative of fore.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the 'Ormulum' we have late, lattre, lattst = late, latter, last.

**Former** is a comparative formed from the old superlative.

In Middle E. we have forme and foremeste for first.

- "Adam our forme fader."-CHAUCER.
- "Adam oure foremeste fader."—MAUNDEVILLE.

Forme fader was afterwards changed to—(1) forne fader; (2) former father.

The suffix -most (O.E. mest), then, in such words as utmost is a double superlative ending; only people no longer understood the meaning of this suffix, and therefore popular etymology connected it with most. The analogies of the language clearly show that most was never suffixed to express the superlative.

after-m-ost = O.E.  $\alpha$ fter-m-est,  $\alpha$ fter-m-est = O.E.  $for\delta$ -m-est.

In Middle and Early Modern E. we find forther-m-ore and backer-m-ore.

hindmost, hindermost = O.E. hindu-ma, hinde-ma.

Chaucer uses hinderest: cp. Middle E. innerest, overest, upperest, utterest.

hither-m-ost is not found in the oldest English.

Over = upper (cp. a-b-ove) in Middle E. writers:

"Pare thy brede and kerve in two,
The over crust tho nether fro."

Boke of Curtasye, p. 300.

"With the over-m-ast [uppermost] lofe hit [the saltcellar] shall be set,"—1b, p. 322.

In O.E. we find superlatives of south, east, west, as súdemest, éastemest, and westemest.

Comp. endmost (O.E. endemest), topmost, headmost.

### III. NUMERALS.

143. NUMBERS may be considered under their divisions—Cardinal, Ordinal, and indefinite Numerals.

### 1. Cardinal.

144. **One.** O.E. án; Goth. ains; Gr. oivós (in inscriptions); Lat. unus for older oines; Sansk. ê-ka, from oi-kos.

Out of the O.E. form dn = one was developed the so-called indefinite article an, and (by loss of n) a.

In Middle E. we find one = dna = alone.

**Two.** O.E. twd fem.; Goth. twai; Gr. 860; Lat. duo; Sansk, dva; O.Sax. tuĉ.

Twain = two, O.E. twégen masc.

We had another word for two in the Northern dialects, of Scandinavian origin, viz. twin, originally a distributive: cp. Goth. tveilinai, O.N. tvennr.

Thrin for three also occurs in O.E. Northern writers, O.N. prennr.

Three. O.E. Nri, Nrio; Goth. preis; Gr. τρεις; Lat. tres; Sansk. tri.

Four. O.E. féower; Goth. fidwôr; Gr. τέτταρες, τέσσαρες; Lat. quatuor; Sansk. catvar.

This numeral has lost a letter, th, and there is an O.E. compound fider-fete—M.E. fether-foted, fither-foted = quadruped—which fether is, of course, more original than four.

Five. O.E. fif; Goth. fimf; Gr.  $\pi \acute{e} \nu \tau \epsilon$ ; Lat. quinque; Sansk. pancan.

In five we see that a nasal has disappeared.

Six. O.E. siv; Goth. saihs; Gr. &; Lat. sev; Sansk. šaš.

Seven. O.E. seofon; Goth. sibun; Gr. επτά; Lat. septem; Sansk. saptan.

**Eight.** O.E. eahta; Goth. ahtau; Gr. δκτώ; Lat. octo: Sansk. aštau.

Nine. O.E. nigon; Goth. niun; O.Sax. nigun; Gr. ἐννέα; Lat. novem; Sansk. navan.

In the fourteenth century we find neghen for nine.

**Ten.** O.E. týn, tén; Goth. taihun; Gr. δέκα; Lat. decem; Sansk. daçan.

The Gothic shows that tyn or ten = tyhen or tehen.

Eleven. O.E. end-lif (endleof); Goth. ain lif; Gr. ένδέκα; Lat. undecim; Sansk. êka-daça.

**Twelve.** O.E. twelf, Goth. twa-lif, is a compound of twa = two + lif, probably connected with the verb to leave, or rather with Latin linguere.

- 145. The numbers from thirteen to nineteen are formed by adding -teen (O.E. -tfne) = ten, to the first nine numerals.
- 146. The numerals from twenty to ninety are formed by suffixing -ty (O.E. tig) = ten, to the first nine numerals.
- 147. **Hundred.** In the oldest English we find hund = hundred. In the Northumbrian dialect hundrad, hundrath

(cf. O.N. hundrap) occurs. The syllable -red is probably connected with Gothic rapjan to number.

In the oldest English hund was added to the numerals 70 to 100, as hund-scofentig = 70; Goth. sibun-têhund; Gr. έβδομή-κοντα; Lat. septua-ginta.

It is probable that the original form was not hund-seofentig, but

hund-scofonta; O. Sax. (h)ant sibunta (decade seventh).

Hundred could also be expressed by hund-tentih (hund-teontig): cp. Goth. talhun-téhund.

- 148. **Thousand** = O.E.  $\delta$ *isend*, Goth. *pusundi*, is now explained as *pus-hundi*, *i.e.* many hundreds, *pus* being connected with Skt. tuvi = many.
- 149. For expressing DISTRIBUTIVES (how many at a time) we employ—
  - (1) The preposition by, as by ones, by twos, two by two.

So in O.E. be ánfealdum, one by one; Middle Eng. be hundredes, be thousandes. (Maundeville.)

- (2) And, as two and two.
- (3) Each and every, two each, every four.

There are also other expressions, as two apiece, two at a time.

- 150. MULTIPLICATIVES are expressed—
- (1) By placing the cardinal before the greater number, as *eight hundred*.
  - (2) By adjectives, with suffix -fold, as twofold, &c.
- (3) By Romanic adjectives in -ple (ble), as dou-ble, tre-ble, tri-ple, &c.
  - (4) By the adverbs **twice**, thrice, as twice seven.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Middle F. of the fourteenth century we find hunder and hundreth. In O.N. hundrah = hundred: cp. áttræþr, containing 80: tíræþr, containing 100.

(5) By the word times; three times one are three.

In Middle English we used sithe, sithes = times; as two sithes too =  $2 \times 2$ .

151. Both. O.E. bégen (m.), bá (n.); Goth. bai, ba; Ger. bei-de.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find bey, ba, bo, boo = both; gen. beire (bother, botheres).

Sometimes bá is joined to treá (two), as bátreá, butwa, butu.

Both is a compound of bd-8d, both they; cp. O.N. bdbir.

As we find *bathe* first in the Northern dialects, it is perhaps due to Scandinavian influence.

The O.E. bégen softened to beyne occurs in the literature of the fourteenth century:—

"Well thou maiht, sif thou wolt, taken ensaumple of beyne, Bothe two in heor elde children heo beore,"—I'ernen MS.

## 2. Ordinals.

152. The ordinals, with the exception of *first* and *second*, are formed from the cardinal numbers, and were originally superlatives formed by the suffix -to (th).

First. For the etymology of this word see § 142.

Second (Lat. secundus = following) has replaced the O.E. ôder (a comparative form).

In O.E.  $\delta \delta er$  (= an-per = one of two) might signify the first or the second of two. It is sometimes joined with the neuter of the article, as  $\delta eet$   $\delta \delta er$ , which in the fourteenth century was represented by the tother (= thet other); the first was sometimes expressed by the ton (the toon), the tone = thet one.

**Third** = O.E.  $\delta ridda$ ,  $\delta ridde$ , Northumbrian  $\delta irda$  (cp. bird, O.E. brid); -de (= -dja) is an adjective suffix = tha: cp. Lat. ter-tiu-s.

Fourth = O.E. feor-da.

Fifth = O.E. fif-ta.

Sixth = O.E. six-ta.

Seventh, Ninth, Tenth = O.E.  $seofo\delta a$ ,  $nigo\delta a$ ,  $tio\delta a$ .

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries these were sevethe, nethe, and tethe (in the Southern dialects). sevende, neghende, tende (in the Northern dialects). seventhe, ninthe, tenthe (in the Midland dialects).

The Midland forms are refashioned after the cardinals, and made their appearance in the fourteenth century; the Northern forms are of Scandinavian origin. 1

In the Northumbrian Gospels we find scofun a.

Eighth stands for eight-th; O.E. eaht-o-da.

In Middle E. (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find aghtende.

**Eleventh**  $^2$  = O.E. endlefta, wllefta (elleuende, endlefthe in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Twelfth = O.E. twelfta (twelfthe, twelft, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Thirteenth = O.E.  $\delta ret\acute{e}o\delta a$  (threttethe and threttende, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

So up to nineteenth, the oldest English forms end in -ope (without n) as: fourteenth, féowertéeða; fifteenth, fiftéeða; sixteenth, sixtéeða; seventeenth, seofontéeða; eighteenth, cahtatéeða; nineteenth, nigontéeða.

The corresponding forms in use in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were: fourteenth, fourtethe, fourtende,

<sup>1</sup> Cp. O.N. 7 siaundi, 9 niundi, 10 tiundi, 13 prettandi, 15 fimtandi, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For origin of n see remarks on Seventh.

fourtenthe; fifteenth, fyftethe, fiftende, fiftenthe; sixteenth, sixtethe, sextende, sixtenthe, &c.

**Twentieth** = O.E. twentig-oda (twentithe).

### IV. INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

153. The indefinite article, as we have seen, is a new development after the Conquest of the numeral *one* (dn).

Before a word beginning with a consonant the n is dropped.

One + the negative ne gives us none, O.E. nán.

*None* is only used predicatively or absolutely;  $^1$  when used with a following substantive the n is dropped, whence no.

### V. INDEFINITE NUMERALS.

154. All = O.E. eall, eal (see note on the old genitive plural, aller, alder, § 125).

# 155. Many = O.E. manig, maneg.2

In the thirteenth century we find for the first time the indefinite article used after it, as: on moni are wiscn (Lazamon), mony enne thing = many a wise, many a thing. Hawes has many a fold.

- <sup>1</sup> By absolutely is meant without a following substantive.
- <sup>2</sup> Many is also a noun, as in "a great many."
  - "A many of our bodies."—Hen. V. v. 3.
  - "O thou fond many."-2 Hen. IV. i. 3.
  - "The rank-scented many."
  - "In many's looks." Sonnets, 93.
- "A manye of us were called together."-LATIMER'S Sermons.
- "Than a gret many of old sparowes geder to-geder."-L. ANDREWE.
- "And him fyligdon mycele *mænigeo* = and there followed him (a) great *many* (or multitude)."—Matt. iv. 25.

- 156. Fela, feola, fele, Ger. viel (many), were in common use as late as the fourteenth century.
- 157. **Few** = O.E. *féawa*, *féa*, connected with Latin *pau-cus*, Greek  $\pi a \hat{v}$ - $\rho o s$ .

In Middle E. we find fa, fo, and fone as well as fewe, few.

### CHAPTER XIII

#### PRONOUNS

158. On the nature of the Pronoun see § 75.

159. The classes of Pronouns are: (1) Personal Pronouns, (2) Demonstrative Pronouns, (3) Interrogative Pronouns, (4) Relative Pronouns, (5) Indefinite Pronouns.

### I. Personal Pronouns.

## (1) Substantive Pronouns.

160. The personal pronouns have no distinction of gender. There are two persons: the person who speaks, called the *first* person; the person spoken to, the *second* person.

161. (a) Inflexion of the Pronoun of the First Person.
Old English.

SING. Nom. I Ic (Middle English Ich, Uch, 1). Gen. — min.

Dat. me mé.

Acc. me mec mê.

Plural. Nom. we wé. Gen. — úser úre.

Dat. us ús.

Acc. us úsic ús.

162. In I the guttural has disappeared: it is radical and exists in the allied languages, as Sansk. ah-am; Gr. ἐγώ; Lat. ego; Goth. ik.

By noticing the oblique cases we see there are two stems, ek (ie) and me, of the first person.

163. In Middle E. we find the pronoun agglutinated to a verb, as Ichabbe = Ich + habbe (I have); Ichille = Ich + ville (I will), &c.

In the provincial dialects of the South of England it still exists: cp. "chill" in Shakespeare's King Lear.

- 164. **Me** (dative) is still in use (1) before impersonal verbs, *methinks* = it appears to me; *me seems*, *me lists*; (2) after interjections, as woe is me, well is him; (3) to express the indirect object, to me, or for me.
- The for me. It is often a mere expletive in Elizabethan writers, and no doubt the original force of the pronoun was forgotten.

  See the dialogue between Petruchio and his servant Grumio, in The Taming of the Shrew, i. 2:—

"Pet. Villain, I say, knock me here soundly.

- "Gru. Knock you here, sir? Why, sir, what am I, sir, that I should knock you here, sir?
- "Pet. Villain, I say, knock me at this gate, and rap me well, or I'll knock your knave's pate.
- "Gru. My master is grown quarrelsome. I should knock you first, and then I know after who comes by the worst...

"Hortensio. How now, what's the matter?

"Gru. Look you, sir,—he bid me knock him, and rap him soundly, sir. Was it fit for a servant to use his master so?"

In Middle English we find the dative construed before the verb to be and an adjective, as: me were leof = it would be lief (preferable) to me. Traces of this idiom are to be found in Shakespeare, as: Me had rather (Rich. II. iii. 3) = Middle English me were lefer = I had liever.

Shakespeare has also: you were best = it were best for you.

The dative me has lost a suffix r (sign of dative): cp. Goth. mi-s, Ger. mi-r.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;He plucked me ope his doublet."-Julius Casar, i. 2.

The O.E. acc. mec consists of me and a suffix which answers to Greek γε in ξμοιγε, ξμεγε. In Middle English it was supplanted by the dat. me; cp. him for O.E. hine.

165. We: Goth. weis; Ger. wir; Sansk. vayam.

166. **Us** (dat.): Goth. *unsis*; Ger. *uns*. The letter n disappears as usual before s in Old English.

Us (acc.): Goth. u-nsi-s; Ger. uns.

167. The O.E. had a dual number for the first and second persons, which went out of use towards the close of the thirteenth century.

168. (b) The Pronoun of the Second Person.

Old English.

Singular. Nom. thou  $\delta u$ .

Gen. —  $\delta in$ .

Dat. thee  $\delta \epsilon$ .

Acc. thee  $\delta \epsilon c$ ,  $\delta \epsilon$ .

Plural. Nom. ye, you gé.

Gen. – éower (Middle E. 3ure).

Dat. you éow (Middle E. 3uw).

Acc. you cowic, cow (Middle B. 3uw).

169. **Thou**: Goth. þu; Gr. σύ, τύ; Lat. tu; Sansk tva-m.

170. The use of the plural for the singular was established as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century.

Thou, as in Shakespeare's time, was (1) the pronoun of affection towards friends, (2) good-humoured superiority to servants, and (3) contempt or anger to strangers. It had, however, already fallen somewhat into disuse; and, being regarded as archaic, was naturally adopted (4) in the higher poetic style and in the language of solemn prayer.—ABBOTT.

Thee (dat.): Goth. pu-s; Gr.  $\sigma o i$ ; Lat. tibi; Sansk. tubhyam. See remarks on me (dat.).

Thee (acc.): Goth. puk; Ger. dich; Gr.  $\tau \epsilon$ ,  $\sigma \epsilon$ ; Lat. se; Sansk.  $tv\hat{a}m$ . See remarks on mc (acc.).

171. **Ye**: Goth. ju-s; Gr. υμεις; Lat. vos; Sansk. yušmê, yûyam.

The confusion between ye and you did not exist in Old English. It was always used as a nom., and you as a dat. or acc. In the English Bible the distinction is very carefully observed, but in the dramatists of the Elizabethan period there is a very loose use of the two forms. Not only is you used as nominative, but ye is used as an accusative.

- "Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate ye."-SHAKESPEARE.
- "And I as one consent with ye in all,"-SACKVILLE,

I am inclined to look upon the origin of ye for you in the rapid and careless pronunciation of the latter word, so that, after all, the ye in the above extracts should be written y' (= you); ye or you may be changed into ee: cp. look ee = look ye. For the historical development of this usage, see Kellner, Hist. Outlines of English Syntax, § 212, 213.

You (dat.): Goth. izwi-s; O. Sax. iu; Gr. δμιν; Lat. vo-bis; Sansk. yu-šma-bhyam and vas.

You (acc.): Goth. izwis; O. Sax. iu; Gr. ὑμῶς; Lat. τως; Sansk. yušmân (vas).

In English you has been developed out of the O.E. cow.

- (c) Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.
- 172. He, She, It. This pronoun is sometimes, but incorrectly, called a personal pronoun: it has distinction of gender, like other demonstrative pronouns in O.E., which the personal pronouns have not.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The demonstrative character of this pronoun is seen in such expressions as, "What is he at the gate?" (Shakespeare); "He of the bottomless pit" (Milton, Areopagitica); "hii of Denemarch" (Robert of Gloucester); "thai of Lorne, thai of the Castel" (Barbour); "they in France" (Shakespeare); "them of Greece" (North's Phitarch).

Old English.

MASCULINE. Nom. he he.

Gen. --- his.

Dat. him him

Acc. him hine (Middle E. him).

FEMININE. Nom. she héo, hi (Middle E. 3i, 3/17v, ho. 5co).

Gen. — hire. Dat. her hire.

Acc. her hi, héo.

NEUTER. Nom. it hit.

Gen. --- his.

Dat. it him.

Acc. it hit.

#### PLURAL.

Nom. They hi, hio, hii (Middle E. pa, pai, pei).

Gen. — hira, heora, here, her (Middle E. þar, þair).

Dat. Them hem, heom, hem (Middle E. ham, pam, pain).

Acc. Them hi, heo, hem (Middle E.  $\flat am$ ,  $\flat o$ ).

173. The Old English pronoun of the third person was formed from only one stem, hi; but the modern English contains the stems hi, sa, and tha.

**He.** For he we sometimes find in Old English ha, a (not confined always to one number or gender; = he, she, it, they).

It occurs in Shakespeare, as "a must needs" (2 Hen. VI, iv. 2); quoth 'a; and is also common in other old writers, as—"has a eaten bull-beefe" (S. Rowlands); "see how a frownes" (Ib.).

- **Hi-m** (dat.) contains a real dative suffix m, which is also found in the dative of adjectives and demonstrative pronouns.1
- Hi-m (acc.). This was originally a dative form, which in the twelfth century (in Lazamon and Orm.) began to replace the accusative; cp. under me, thee.
- Hi-ne.—The old accusative was sometimes shortened to hin and in, and still exists in the South of England under the form en, as—"Up I sprung, drow'd [threw] down my candle, and douted [put out] en; and hadn't a blunk [spark] o' fire to teen en again."—(Devonshire Dialect.)
- 174. She, in the twelfth century, in the Northern dialects, replaced the old form héo. The earliest instance of its use is found in the A.-Sax, Chronicle,<sup>2</sup> After all, it is only the substitution of one demonstrative for another, for **she** is the feminine of the definite article, which in O.E. was sio or sia; from the latter of these probably comes she.

In the dialects of Lancashire, the Peak of Derbyshire, and adjoining districts, the old feminine is still preserved under the form hoo.

Her (dat.) contains a true dative (fem.) suffix -r or -re.

Her (acc.) was originally dative, and, as in the case of him, has replaced an accusative; the old acc. was hi, héo.

175. I-t has lost an initial guttural.<sup>3</sup> The t is an old

inanimate things in the later periods of the language.

2 1140 (Stephen). "per efter sea ferde ofer see." In the thirteenth century, the ordinary form of she is sco, found in Northern writerse sche (sca) is a Midland modification of it.

<sup>3</sup> We find this h disappearing as early as the twelfth century (as in

Orm.).

<sup>1</sup> Him was also the dative of it, and we often find it applied to

neuter suffix (cp. tha-t, wha-t) cognate with d in Latinillud, istu-d, quo-d, qui-d. It is often a kind of indeterminate pronoun in Middle E.; it was a man == there was a man: it arn = there are. See also Kellner, Hist. Outlines of English Syntax, § 281.

It (dat.) has replaced the true form him.

For the history of the word his see Adjective Pronouns.

176. **They.**—In the thirteenth century this form came into use in the North of England, and replaced *hi* or *heo*; the earliest forms of it are \$\int\_{e33}\$, thei, tha.

The Southern dialect kept up the old form hi or her nearly to the end of the fourteenth century.

They is the nom. plural of the definite article, O.E.  $\delta d$ , probably modified by Scandinavian influence.<sup>1</sup>

"Or gif thai men, that will study
In the craft of Astrology," &c.—BARBOUR'S Bruce.

Them (dat.), O.E.  $\delta am$ , is the dative plural of the definite article, and replaced O.E. *heom*, *hem*. Them is the result of two cross influences: the *th* is taken from Old Norse *peim*, the *e* from O.E. *hem*.

**The-m** (acc.) is a dative form; the true accusative is thá or they. It has replaced the O.E. hi or heo.

We often find in the dramatists em (acc.), usually printed 'em, as if it were a contraction of them, which represents the old heom, hem, as—

<sup>1</sup> The O. Norse forms bear a greater resemblance to they, their, and them than the O.E. ones.

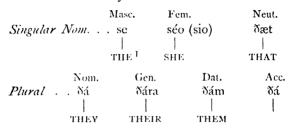
O. Norse pei-r, peirra, peim. O.E. &á, &ára, &ám.

The Midland and Southern dialects changed O.E. 8d to tho, not to their or they.

"The sceptre and the golden wreath of royalty Seem hung within my reach.
Then take 'cm to you
And wear 'cm long and worthily."—Rowe.

# 177. TABLE showing the origin of she, they, &c.

## Definite Article.



We have said nothing about the genitives of the personal pronouns, because they are now expressed by the accusative with a preposition. For the origin of the pronominal genitives, see *Adjective Pronouns*.

# (2) REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

- 178. Reflexives in English are supplied by the personal pronouns with or without the word self.
  - "I do repent me."-SHAKESPEARE'S Merchant of Venice.
  - "Signor Antonio commends him to you."-Ib.
  - "My heart hath one poor string to stay it by."-King John.
  - "Come, lay thee down."-Lodge's Looking Glass.
  - "Ladies, go sit you down amidst this bower."-Ib.
- "All (fishes) have hid them in the weeds."—JOHN FLETCHER'S Faithful Shepherdess.
- 179. The addition of self renders the reflexive signification more emphatic, as—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The th in the is due to the influence of the more numerous forms beginning with th.

(I) myself, (thou) thyself, &c.

Singular. 1st person, myself; 2nd person, thyself, yourself.

Plural. 1st person, ourselves; 2nd person, your-selves.

Singular. 3rd person masc. himself; fem. herself: neut. itself.

Plural. 3rd person, themselves.

Note.—Self 1 was originally an adjective = same, as "in that selve moment" (CHAUCER).

"A goblet of the self"  $\approx$  "A piece of the same,"—Boke of Curtasye, 1, 776.

"That self mould" (SHAKESPEARE, Rich. 11. i. 2). Cp. self-same.

In the oldest English self was declined as a definite or indefinite adjective; as lc self and lc selfa = I (my)self, and agreed with the pronouns to which it was added; as nom. lc selfa; gen. mln selfes, dat.  $m\acute{e}$  silfum, acc. mec silfue.

- 180. In O.E. sometimes the dative of the personal pronoun was prefixed to the nominative of self, as—(1) Ic mé sulf; (2)  $\delta u \delta e'$  silf; (3) hé him silf: (1) we ús silfe; (2) ge éow silfe; (3) hí him silfe.
- 181. In the thirteenth century a new form came in, by the substitution of the *genitive* for the *dative* of the prefixed pronoun in the first and second persons, as—mi self, thi self, for me self, the self; later on (middle of the 14th century?) we find also our self, your self, for us self, you self.

No doubt self began to be regarded as a noun. Cp. one's self.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Speak of thy fair self, Edith."-J. FLETCHER.

<sup>&</sup>quot;My woeful self."-BEN JONSON.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Self, Goth. silba, Ger. selbe, probably contains the reflexive si (Lat. se), and -lf = lb, life, soul (as in Ger. leib, body). The Sansk. atman, soul, is used as a reflexive.

- "Thy crying self."-SHAKESPEARE.
- "For at your dore myself doth dwell."—HEYWOOD, The Four P.'s.
- "Myself hath been the whip."—CHAUCER.

Hence self makes its plural, selves, like nouns ending in f, fe; cp. "To our gross selves" (Shakespeare)—a formation altogether of recent origin. "To prove their selfes" occurs in Berners' Froissart.\(^1\) Cf. Kellner, Hist. Outlines of English Syntax, \(^1\) \(^2\) \(^2\) \(^2\) \(^2\)

182. Such phrases as Casar's self (North), Tarquin's self (Shakespeare), are not, philologically speaking, so correct as Attica self (North), &c. Comp.

"And knaw kyndly what God es And what man self es that es les." HAMPOLE's Pricke of Consc., p. 4.

In himself, themselves, it self (not its self) the old dative remains unchanged; his self, theirselves, are provincialisms. With **own**, his and their may be used.

- 183. In Middle English one was sometimes used for self.
  - "And the body with flesshe and bane,
    Es harder than the saul by it ane."
    HAMPOLE, Pricke of Consc., p. 85.
  - "Whan they come by them one two"
  - "When they two came by themselves."

    Morte d'Arthur, p. 14.

In Middle E. the plural was marked by e or -en: when this disappeared it left the plurals ourself, yourself, themself; but as we and you were often used in the singular number, a new plural came into use, so we now say yourself (sing.), yourselves (pl.).

Cp. "We have saved ourself that trouble."—FIELDING.

<sup>&</sup>quot;You, my Prince, yourself a soldier, will reward him."
—LORD BYRON.

# (3) Adjective Pronouns.

184. The adjective pronouns, or, as they are sometimes called, the possessive pronouns, were originally formed from the genitive case of the personal pronouns, and were declined like adjectives.

In modern English the possessive adjective pronouns are identical in form with the old genitives of the personal pronouns, and are indeclinable.

Traces of the older adjectival forms are found in the fourteenth century.

185. Mine, my, thine, thy, O.E. min,  $\delta$ in. The  $\epsilon$  in mine and thine only marks the length of the preceding vowel, and is no inflexional syllable.

-n is a true genitive suffix as far as English is concerned, but is of adjectival origin.

In the twelfth century the n dropped off before a consonant, but was retained (a) in the oblique cases, (b) in the plural (with final e), (c) when the pronoun followed the substantive, (d) before a word commencing with a vowel.

The fourth or euphonic use of *mine* and *thine* is exceedingly common in poetry, as—

"Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice."—SHAKESPEARE.

Of the third usage we have instances as late as Shake-speare's time, as brother *mine*, uncle *mine*.

186. His, a true genitive of the root hi.

In M.E. we often find a plural hise.

He-r, O.E. hi-re, contains agenitive suffix, -r (re).

Its, O.E. his. This form is not much older than the end of the sixteenth century. It is not found in the Bible,

or in Spenser, rarely in Shakespeare 1 and Bacon, more frequently in Milton, common in Dryden, who seems to have been ignorant of the fact that *his* was once the genitive of *it*, as well as of *he*.

"And the earth brought forth grass, and herb yielding seed after his kind."—Gen. i. 12.

"It shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise his heel."—Gen. iii. 15.

"And that same eye, whose bend doth awe the world, Did lose his lustre."—Julius Casar, i. 2.

187. Along with the use of his we find, in the fourteenth century, in the West Midland dialect, an uninfacted genitive hit.

"Forthy the derk dede see hit is demed ever more For hit dedez of dethe duren there 5et." 2

Allit. Poems, B. 1. 1021.

This curious form is found in our Elizabethan dramatists:

- "It knighthood shall fight all it friends."—Silent Woman, ii. 3.
- "The innocent milk in it most innocent mouth."
- "The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long,
  That it's had it head bit off by it young."—Lear, i. 4.
- "That which groweth of it own accord." 3-Levit. xxv. 5.

188. For its own we have a curious form that occurs frequently in older writers, namely, "the own" as—"A certeine sede which growth there of the own accorde."—Fardell of Facion, 1555.

It occurs in Hooker, but is altered in the modern reprints to its own. The earliest instance of this usage is

Mr. Abbott notices that it is common in Florio's Montaigne.
 "Therefore the dark Dead Sea it is deemed evermore,
For its deeds of death endure (last) there yet."
 The modern reprint of the edition of 1611 has altered it to its.

found in Hampole's "Pricke of Conscience," p. 85 (A.D. 1340):—

"For the saule, als the boke bers wytnes, May be pyned with fire bodily, Als it may be with the awen body."

189. Ou-r, you-r, O.E. ú-re (ús-cr), éow-er (M.E. 3ure).

All these forms contain a genitive pl. suffix (adjectival), -r (-re). See note on *Alder*, § 125.

**Thei-r**, has also a genitive pl. suffix, -r, and has replaced the older *hi-re* (*heo-re*, *he-re*, *he-r*). See Table, p. 183.

## (4) Independent or Absolute Possessives.

190. Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, are called independent or absolute because they may be used without a following substantive, as this is *mine*, that is *yours*.

"The tempest may break out which overwhelms thee And thine, and mine."—Byron.

191. Hers, ours, yours, theirs, are double genitives containing a pl. suffix r+a sing. -s. These forms were confined in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries to the Northern dialects, and are probably due to Scandinaviar influence. Sometimes we find imitations of them in the Midland dialects, as hores, heres = theirs. The more ordinary forms in the Southern dialects than in -s are hire (hir), oure (our), youre (your), here (her), as—"I wol be your in alle that ever I may."—Chaucer.

In Middle English we sometimes find ouren = ours heren = theirs, and in provincial English we find hish hern, ourn, theirn.

### II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

- 192. The demonstratives, with the exception of *the* and *yon*, are used substantively and adjectively.
- (1) **The** (usually called the *Definite Article*) was formerly declined like an adjective for number, gender, and case, but is now without any inflexion.<sup>1</sup>

```
SINGULAR.
Masc. Nom.
              se (the).
       Gen.
              Sa-s (the-s, thi-s, tha-s).
       Dat.
              Som (tha-n, the-n).
              So-ne (the-ne, tha-ne, then).
       Acc.
       Inst.
              Sí, thể.
Fem. Nom. séo (théo, tha, the).
      Gen. Sá-re (tha-re, the-re).
      Dat. Sere (tha-re, the-re).
              8á (theo, the).
      Acc.
Neut. Nom.
              Sec-t (that, thet).
       and
      Acc.
      Gen.
              like the Masc.
       and
      Dat.
                 PLURAL.
 Nom. bá (thaie, tho, tha).
 Gen.
        bá-ra, bá-ra (thare, there).
       þá-m, þá-m (than, thon, then)
 Dat.
 Acc.
         bá (thaie, tho, the).
```

The inflexions began to drop off about the middle of the twelfth century.

The, before a comparative, is the old instrumental thi, as the more =  $e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$  eo magis, &c.

(2) **That.** In the Middle English Northern dialects pat was used irrespective of gender, as patt engell; patt

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Later forms which were in partial use during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries are placed in brackets

allterr (*Orm.*), and in the fourteenth century we find it as a demonstrative, as now taking the place of the older  $\beta ilk$  (*thilke*). See § 193. Then it took for itself the following plurals: (a)  $\beta o$  (or  $\beta a$ ), the old plural of the definite article; (b)  $\beta os$  ( $\beta as$ ), the old plurals of *this*.

In the Southern and some of the Midland dialects, we find pes, bese, bese, bese = these.

(3) **Those** = O.E.  $\delta ds$ , the old plural of  $\delta es$  = this.

The history of the word that should be borne well in mind:—(1) It was originally neuter, (cp. i-t, wha-t); (2) It became an indeclinable demonstrative, answering in meaning to ille, illa, illud; (3) It took the pl. (1) of the; (2) of this.

(4) This (= hic, heec, hoe) = O.E. des (m.), déos (f.), pis (m.), was formerly declined like an adjective. Here again the neuter has replaced the masculine and feminine forms, which, however, in the south of England were to be found as late as 1357.

In Wickliffe we have thisis fader = the father of this man.

The O.E. des is (as seen by the O. Sax. these) contracted, and it contains the root the (or tha, as in the) and a lengthened form of se (the), Sansk. sya. This se (sya) had the force of Lat. -c, -que, as in hi-c, quis-que.

These probably derives from the dat. pl. deosum, Middle English pese (n.).

This refers to the more immediate object, that to the remoter object.

"What conscience dictates to be done,
Or warns me not to do,
This teach me more than hell to shun,
That more than heaven pursue."—POPE.

193. We have three demonstratives containing the adjective -lic, like, with the particles so, the, and i (Goth. i-s).

(1) **Such**: O.E. swilc<sup>1</sup> = Gothic swa-leiks = so-like.

Such then signifies so-like (cp. Ger. solch = so-lich); such like is a pleonastic expression.

In the Northern dialects we find slyk, sli, silk, of Scandinavian origin, whence Scotch sic.

In Middle E. suche ten, &c. = ten times as much (or as many), &c.

"The lengthe is suche ten as the deepnesse."—Pilgrimage, p. 235.

- (2) **Thilk** = the like, that, that same = O.E.  $\delta y$ -lic,  $\delta y$ -lic (Middle E. thelk, thulk, thike); Provincial English thuck, thucky (theck, thick, thicky, thecky).
  - "I am thilke that thou shouldest seeche."-Pilgrimage, p. 5.
  - "She hadde founded thilke hous."—Ib. p. 7.
  - (3) Ilk = same : 'of that ilk.'
    - " This ilk worthe knight."-CHAUCER.
    - "That ilk 2 man."-Ib.

I/k = O.E se ilca = the same.

194. **Same**: Gothic sama, O.N. samr, Lat. similis, Gr. ομος, Sansk. sama. In the oldest English same is an adverb = together, and not a demonstrative.

As the word makes its appearance for the first time in the Northern dialects, it is no doubt due to Scandinavian influence.<sup>3</sup>

It is joined to the demonstratives the, this, that, yon, yond, self.

195. Yon, yond, yonder. Goth. jains (m.), jaina (f.), jainata (n.), that. In the oldest English yond (geond)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Middle E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries there are various forms of this compound, as swule, sulch, swulch, swulch, swuch, soch.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> That ilk, O.E. Sat ylca, was originally neuter. Ilk = same must be distinguished from Middle E. ilk, ilka, each, each one.

<sup>3</sup> Sam...sam = whether...or, is found in O.E.

is only a preposition = through, over, beyond, or an adverbyonder. But there is a trace of yon as a demonstrative in the Pastoral Care, p. 443:—to zeonre byrg (to yon town).

Yond makes its appearance as a demonstrative for the first time in the "Ormulum" (twelfth century).

It is seldom used substantively, as in the following passages from old English writers:—

"I am the kynge of this londe & Oryens am kalled, And the *zohdur* is my quene, Betryce she hette." Chevelere Assigne, 1. 232.

"Ys zone thy page?"-R. OF BRUNNE, Spec. of E. Eng. p. 119.

"The 30nd is that semly."---WILL. OF PALERNE.

196. So. O.E. = swá.

"Folly (I say) that both makes friends and keeps them so."—BP. KENNET'S Translation of ERASMUS' Praise of Folly.

"If there were such a way; there is none so."—GOWER, ii. 33.

In Early Middle E. so is used before comparatives like the (O.E. 81): "stwo leng the werse" = the longer the worse; "stwo leng stwo more."—O.E. Hom. Second Series, pp. 85, 87.

## III. Interrogative Pronouns.

- 197. The Interrogative Pronouns are who, which, what, whether, with the compounds whoever, whatever, whethersoever, which soever.
- 198. **Who.** O.E. hwá, Middle E. hwo, ho (masc. and fem.), hwat, hwat, wat (neut.); Goth. hwa-s (m.), hwa (neut.); Sansk. kas (m.), kâ (f.), ka-t (neut.); Gr. κό-s, πός; Lat. quis, quæ, quod.

It is only used of persons, and is masculine and feminine.

Whose. O.E. hwás, Middle E. whos, hos, was, wos, gen. sing. Originally of all genders, now limited to persons, though in poetry it occasionally occurs with reference to

neuter substantives. It is also used absolutely, as "Whose is the crime?"

Whom (dat. sing.). O.E. hwam, Middle E. wham wom, originally of all genders.

The accusative hwone (hwane) was replaced in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries by wham, but instances of the older hwone are to be found under the forms hwan, wan, mane.

199. Wha-t, originally the neuter of who. 'Ormulum' what is used adjectively, without respect to gender, as "whatt mann?" "whatt thing?" just as we say, "what man?" "what woman?" "what thing?" Without a noun it is now a singular and neuter; with a noun it is singular or plural, and of all genders.

What in Old English was used in questions concerning the nature, quality, or state of a person, as hweet is  $\delta es = quis$ est hic (Matt. iv. 41).

"What is this womman, quod I, so worthily atired?"-Piers Plowman.

What is followed by a, like many, such, each, &c.

- 200. What for = what sort of a, is an idiom that made its appearance in the sixteenth century, and similar to the German was für ein. Spenser, Palgrave, and Ben Jonson have instances of it.
- 201. Whether. O.E. hwæder, Middle E. whether,1 wher; Goth. hwa-par = which of the two. It has become archaic; but was very common in the seventeenth century.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Whether is greater, the gift or the altar?"-Matt. xxiii. 19.

<sup>1</sup> See Comparatives, § 131, for origin of -ther.

It is very rarely used adjectively, as in the following passage: --

"Thirdly (we have to consider) whether state (the Church or the Commonwealth) is the superior."—BP. MORTON in Literature of the Church of England, vol. i. p. 109.

In the thirteenth century it is rarely inflected; and the following passages are almost unique:—

- (a) "Hweheres fere wult tu beon? Mid hweher wult tu bolien?" Ancren Riwle, p. 284.
  - (b) "Now whether his hert was fulle of care." 2-Morte d'Arthur.

Whether his = whetheres. I have seen who his = whose, an analogous formation.

- (c) Bishop Hall uses the rare compound whethersoever.
- "What matters it whether I go for a flower or a weed, here? Whether soever I must wither,"
- 202. Which, O.E. hwile, Middle E. hulie, while, whule, whuleh, wuch, woch, a compound of hwa, who, and lie = like. Cp. Lat. qua-li-s. It is used as a singular or plural, and of any gender.
- In O. and Middle E. it has the force sometimes of (a) quis, as Hwyle is min modor? Who is my mother?
  (b) quantus:—
  - "Whiche a sinne violent."-GOWER, iii. 244.
  - "Allas wzuch serwe and deol ther wes!" + Castel of Love, p. 5.

1 "Of which of the two wilt thou be the associate? With which of the two wilt thou suffer?"

<sup>2</sup> "Now of which of the two was the heart full of care?" The writer is speaking of Launcelot and Queen Guenever,

### IV. Relative Pronouns.

203. The relative pronouns are who, which, that, as. In O.E. who, which, what, were not relative, but interrogative pronouns; which, whose, whom, occur as relatives as early as the end of the twelfth century, but who was not in common use before the sixteenth century. That and what originally referred only to neuter antecedents.

The relatives in the oldest English were:-

- (1) se (m.), séo (f.),  $\delta \omega t$  (n.): also the definite article. (2)  $\delta e$ , in declinable. (3)  $\delta e$  in combination with se, séo,  $\delta \omega t$ ; as se  $\delta e$  séo  $\delta e$ ,  $\delta \omega t t$ . (4) swá-swát = so...so. (5)  $\delta \omega t$   $\delta \omega t$ , whatever. (6) swyle... swyle = such...such.
- 204. Who as a relative is not recognised by Ben Jonson, who says "one relative which." It is now used in both numbers, and relates to masculine or feminine antecedents (rational).
- 205. Who is very rarely employed by Hawes; frequently by Berners; not uncommon in Shakespeare; used only once or twice by Sackville.

"And other sort

Who, fearing to be yielded, fled before; Stole home by silence of the secret night:
The third unhappy and enraged sort
Of desp'rate hearts, who, stain'd in princes' blood,
From traitorous furour could not be withdrawn."—SACKVILLE.

206. Who . . . he is used like Ger. wer, quisquis = whoso.1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This construction is common in Shakespeare, where we should use whoever:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;O now who will behold
The royal captain of this ruin'd band?
Let him cry, ! Praise and glory on his head.'"
Henry V. iv. Prol.

The demonstrative may be omitted, as-

- "Who steals my purse steals trash." Othello, iii. 3. 157.
- 207. In the fourteenth century whan, wan (representing O.E. hwone and hwam) is sometimes found as an objective case:—
  - "Seint Dunstan com hom azen . . .

    Ladde his abbey al in pees fram whan he was so longe."

    E. Eng. Poems, p. 37.
- "bis(e) were ure faderes of wan we beh sube ycome."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER.
- 208. In Gower we find the demonstrative the joined to whose and whom, so that the whose = whose; the whom = whom:—
  - "The whos power as now is falle."—Confessio Amant. ii. 187.
  - "The whom no pité might areste."—Ib. iii. 203.
  - "Your mistress from the whom I see.
    There's no disjunction."—Winter's Tale, iv. 4.

## Whose that = whoso:—

- "To Venus whos prest that I am."-Confess. Amant. ii. 61.
- "And dame Musyke commaunded curteysly
  La Bell Pucell wyth me than to daunce
  Whome that I toke wyth all my plesaunce."

HAWES, Pastime of Pleasure, p. 70.

- "Whom he did foreknow, he did predestinate."—Rom. viii. 29.
- "Who seems most sure, him soonest whirls she (Fortune) down."

  SACKVILLE'S Henry Stafford.
- "And who wylle not, thay shalle be slone."—TOWNLEY, Mysteries, p. 71.
- "A hwam mai he luue treweliche hwa ne luues his brother, Thenne hwase the ne luues he is mon unwreastest." (Ah! whom may he love truly whoso loveth not his brother; then whoso loveth not thee is a most wicked man.)—O.E. Hom. First Scries, p. 274.

- 209. Shakespeare uses who of animals and of inanimate objects regarded as persons, as—
  - "A lion who glared."-Julius Casar, i.

"The winds Who take the ruffian billows by the tops." - 2 Hen. IV. iii. I.

"And as the turtle that has lost her mate
Whom griping sorrow doth so sore attaint."
SACKVILLE'S Henry Stafford.

- 210. Which now relates only to neuter antecedents, but this is comparatively a modern restriction. Cp. "Our Father which art in heaven."
  - "Then Warwick disannuls great John of Gaunt, Which did subdue the greatest part of Spain."—3 Hen, VI. iii. 1.
  - "Adrian which pope was."-Gower, i. 29.
  - "She which shall be thy norice."—Ib. i. 195.
- 211. Compounds of which with the, that, as, &c. are now archaic:—

"'Twas a foolish guest, The which to gain and keep he sacrificed all rest."—BYRON.

"The better part of valour is discretion, in the which better part I have saved my life."—1 Hen. IV. v. 4.

"The chain Which God he knows I saw not, for the which He did arrest me."—Comedy of Errors, v. I.

- "The civil power, which is the very fountain and head from the which both these estates (Church and Commonwealth) do flow, and by the which it is brought to pass that there is a Church in any place."—BP. MORTON.
  - "His fruits, for most, was wild fruits of the tree, Unless sometimes some crumbs fell to his share, Which in his wallet long, God wot, kept he, As on the which full daint'ly would he fare."

    SACKVILLE'S Induction.
  - "The which was cleped Clemene."-GOWER, ii. 34.
  - "Among the whiche there was one."—Ib. ii. 375.

- "The Latin worde whyche that is referred Unto a thynge whych is substancyall, For a nowne substantive is wel averred."
  - HAWES, P. of P. p. 24; see p. 14.
- "Theis . . . yatis (gates) which that ye beholde."

SKELTON, i. 384.

- "Man, the which that wit and reason can." -- Gower, i. 34.
- "Thing which that is to love due."—Ib. ii. 18.
- "Thing which as may nought been acheved."—Ib. ii. 380.
- "This abbot which that was an holy man."

  CHAUCER'S Prioress' Tale, 1. 630.
- "The sond and ek the smale stones
  Whiche as sche ekes out for the nones."
  GOWER, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 373.
- relative, now agrees with singular and plural antecedents of all genders.

That came in as early as the time of Alfred the Great to supply the place of the *indeclinable relative* the, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative.<sup>2</sup> In the sixteenth century, which often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century, who replaces it. About Addison's time, that had again come into fashion, and had almost driven which and who out of use.

- <sup>1</sup> That introduces always an adjective clause, while who and which are not always so used; as—
  - (1) I met a man who told me he had been called = I met a man and he told me, &c.
  - (2) It's no use asking John, who knows nothing of it = It's no use asking John, (since, seeing that, for, &c.) he knows nothing of it.
- In (1) the second clause is co-ordinate in sense with the preceding; in (2) it is adverbial.
- "That is the proper restrictive explicative, limiting or defining relative."—BAIN'S English Grammar, p. 23.
  - <sup>2</sup> See Historical Outlines of English Syntax, § 331.

Addison, in his 'Humble Petition of Who and Which,' makes the petitioners thus complain: "We are descended of ancient families, and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the Jack Sprat that supplanted us."

213. There is another point in which that resembles the indeclinable the; both being followed and not preceded by a preposition, as—"Sæt bed, se lama on læg" (Mark ii. 4) = "The bed wherein the sick of the palsy lay" (English Version), or = the bed that the lame man lay on.

So in Middle E. fourteenth century:-

" be ston bat he leonede to." - Vernon MS. fol. 4a.

And, as in our Version, the *relative adverb* is sometimes found:

"He eode in to be cite per alle his fon inne were."--Ib.

As was used sometimes to replace that, as—

"For per is a welle fair ynou5 In pe stede as he lai on; as me ma5 per iseo."

E. Eng. Poems, p. 35.

"On Englysshe tunge out of Frankys Of a boke as I fonde ynne."

R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, p. 3.

214. That, in virtue of its being neuter, is sometimes used for what, and a preposition may precede it.

"I am possess'd of that is mine."-SHAKESPEARE, Much Ado, i. 1.

"Throw us that you have about you."

Ib. Two Gentlemen of Verona.

- "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen."

  St. John iii. 11.
- "What wight is that which saw that I did see."

  Ferrex and Porrex, p. 69.
- "Eschewe that wicked is."—GOWER'S Confess. Amant. i. 244.
- "That he hath hyght, he shall it hold."—Morte d'Arthur, p. 132.

- - "That that I did, I was set on to do't by Sir Toby."

    Twelfth Night, iv. 2.
  - "That that is, is."-Ib. v. I.
- "That that that gentleman has advanced, is not that, that he should have proved to your Lordship."—Spectator, 80.
- 216. What = that which, refers to singular and neuter antecedents. It is used both substantively and adjectively.
  - " What is done cannot be undone."-Macbeth.
  - "Look what I speak, my life shall prove it true."—Ib. iv. 3.
  - "No ill luck stirring but what lights upon my shoulder."

    Merchant of Venice, iii. 1.
  - "The entertainer provides what fare he pleases."—FIELDING.
  - 217. Such expressions as the following are archaic, as -

"He it was, whose guile Stirred up with envy and revenge deceived The mother of mankind, what time his pride Had cast him out from heaven."—MILTON.

- "At what time Joas reigned as yet in Juda."—HOLINSHED.
- "For what tyme he to me spak,
  Out of hys moup me poghte brak
  A flamme of fyre."—R. OF BRUNNE, Specimens, p. 119.
- 218. It is a vulgarism to use what with an antecedent noun or pronoun, as—
  - "A vagrant is a man what wanders."

Yet we find some instances of this in older writers, as-

- "I fear nothing what can be said against me."—Hen. VIII. v. I.
- "To have his pomp and all what state commands."

Timon of Athens, iv. 2.

- "Either the matter what other men wrote, or els the maner how other men wrote."—ASCHAM'S Scholemaster, p. 142.
  - "Offer them peace or aught what is beside."

    Ed. I. in Old Plays, vol. ii. p. 37.

#### 219. What that, that what, are archaic, as -

"What man hat it smite
Thurghout his armur it wol kerve and byte."
CHAUCER, Squyer's Tale, 1. 10471.

- "That what we have we prize not to the worth."-Much Ado, ii. 1.
- "That what is extremely proper in one company, may be highly improper in another."—CHESTERFIELD.
  - "That pat a king himselfe bit (= bids)."
    GOWER, Confess Amant. i. 4.
  - "But what pat God forwot mot needes be."-CHAUCER.
  - "What schulde I telle . . .

    And of moche oper ping what pat pen was?"

    R. OF BRUNNE'S Handlynge Synne, Prol.

#### 220. So what as = what that :—

- "Here I do bequeathe to thee
  In full possession, half that Kendal hath,
  And what as Bradford holds of me in chief."
  DODSLEY, Old Plays, ii. 47.
- 221. As (O.E. eall-swá, alswá, M.E. also, alse, ase, als; cp. O.E. hwá-swá, M.E. hose = whoso) possesses a relative force on account of its being a compound of so,<sup>1</sup> and is usually employed as such when preceded by the demonstratives such, same, so much.
  - "All such reading as was never read."-POPE.
    - "Unto bad causes swear Such creatures as men doubt."—Julius Caesar, ii. 1.

"For all such authors as be fullest of good matter... be likewise alwayes most proper in words."—Ascham's Scholemaster, p. 136.

- "Some such sores as greve me to touch them myself."

  Ed. I. in Old Plays, vol. ii. p. 20.
- "Such one as is already furnished with plentie of learning."

  1b. p. 113.

We find  $so \dots so = for as \dots so :-$ 

<sup>&</sup>quot;So the sea is moved, so the people are changed."-DR. DONNE'S Sermons.

"These are such as with curst curres barke at every man but their owne friends."—Gosson, School of Abuse, p. 18.

"For po sche poghtë to beginne

Such ping as semep impossible."

GOWER, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 373.

"Of sich as loves servauntes ben."—Romaunt of the Rose, l. 145.
"In pilke places as bey habiten."—Ib. 660.

After so, as occurs sometimes—

"So many examples as filled xv. bookes."—ASCHAM, p. 157.

In Shakespeare it is found after this, that:

- "That gentleness as I was wont to have."-Julius Caesar, i. 2.
- "Under these hard conditions as this time is like to lay upon me." --- Ib.

But in Middle E. writers we sometimes find as = such as:—

- "Drauztes as me drawe) in poudre" = characters such as one draws in powder (dust).—E. Eng. Poems, p. 77.
  - "Talys shall bou fynde berynne, Mervelys some as Y fonde wrytyn."—R. of Brunne, p. 5.
- 222. For such . . . as the oldest English has swylc . . . swylc = such . . . such :—
- "He séce swylene hláford swylene he wille."—Laws of Æthelred, V. i. I: = let him seek such a lord as he may choose.

At the end of the twelfth century we find as for swylc:

"Wipp all swille rime alls her iss sett."—()rm. D. 101.

Cp. the following, where alse = as if = the older swile:

"He wes so kene, he wes swa strang Swile hit weore an eotand."—La3. A. p. 58.

"He wes swa kene, and so strong,

Alse he were an eatande [= giant]."—La3. B. p. 58.

(A = earlier text, early thirteenth century  $\cdot$  B = later thirteenth.)

Sometimes so is found after swylc:-

- "And switche opre [sennen] so the apostle her nemde." -O.E. Homilies, Second Series.
- "Swylera yrmda swa dú une der serife" = Of such miseries as thou previously assignedst to us (two). Exeter Book, 373.
- 223. Who-so, what-so, who-so-ever, which-so-ever are relatives (indefinite), like the Latin quisquis, quincunque.

The latter parts of the compounds, used adjectively, are sometimes separated by an intervening noun, as—

- "We can create, and in what place so'er Thrive under evil."—MILTON, i. 260.
- "Upon what side as ever it falle."-GOWER, Confess. Amant. i. 264.
- 224. What is used sometimes for whatever:-
  - "And, speak men what they can to him, he'll answer With some rhyme rotten sentence."

HENRY PORTER in LAMB'S Dram. Poets, p. 432, Bohn's Series.

"IVhat pou herë ye no credence."--Gower's Confess. Amant. i. 50.

In Middle E. we find who that ever, what that ever, who-as-ever, what-as-ever, what-als-ever.

- "Yn what cuntre of the worlde so ever hat he be gone."

  Gest. Rom. i.
- "Who pat ever comep bedir he shalle fare well."-Ib.
- <sup>22</sup>5. Who-ever, whatever, which-ever are relative and interrogative. They do not occur in the oldest English, and are comparatively late forms.

## V. Indefinite Pronouns.

226. The indefinite pronouns do not specify any particular object. Some are used substantively, others adjectively. Most of them may be used in both ways. The indefinites

are (in addition to the indefinite relatives) who, what, some, none, no, aught, naught, enough, any, each, every, either, neither, other, else, sundry, certain.

## 227. Who = any one, some one.

"Timon, surnamed Misantropos (as who should say Loupgarou, or the man-hater)."—NORTH'S Plutarch, 171.

"Suppose who enters now,
A king whose eyes are set in silver, one
That blusheth gold."—DECKER'S Satiro-Mastix.

"'Twill be my chaunce els some to kill wherever it be or whom."— DAVIS, Scourge of Folly, DODSLEY'S Old Plays, ii. p. 50.

"'Is mother Chat at home?' 'She is, syr, and she is not; but it please her to whom.'"—Ib. p. 61.

"The cloudy messenger turns me his back
And hums, as who should say, 'You'll rue the time
That clogs me with this answer.'"—Macbeth, iii. 6.

"As who would saye Astrologie were a thing of great primacie."—DRANT'S Sermons.

"Sche was as who seip, a goddesse."
GOWER, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 376.

"pay faught[en] alle pat longë day,

Who had it sene, wele myght he syghe."

Morte d'Arthur, p. 126.

"I will not live
Who wolde me all his world here give."

Chaucer's Dream, 1, 618.

"If per were not who to sle it," &c. -Pilgrimage, p. 12.

"Alswa (= als wha) say here, may lyf na man Wipouten drede, pat witte can."—HAMPOLE, P. of C. p. 69.

"As hwa se seie he his is mare hen heof."—O. E. Hom. First Series, p. 281.

"benne azaines kinde gab hwu bat swuche kinsemon ne luueb."—Ib. p. 275.

Who is sometimes joined to some. See § 232.

- 228. What is indefinite in such expressions as "I tell you what" (= something), "I know not what," "what not," "elles what" (Chaucer).
  - "Come down and learne the little what That Thomalin can sayne."—Spenser's Shep. Cal., July.
  - "As pey spek of many what."
    ROBERT OF BRUNNE, Handlynge Synne, Specimens, p. 110.
  - "Which was the lopliest[e] what."—Gower, i. 98.
  - "As he which cowbe mochel what."—Ib. i. 320.
  - "Love is bought for litil what,"—Ib. ii. 275.
  - "A little what."-WICKLIFFE, John vi. 7.

In the oldest English we find anes hwat and swilces hwat = somewhat.

For other compounds, see some, § 232.

- 229. **Some** (O.E. *sum*, Middle E. *som*, *aliquis*, *quelque*) is used both adjectively and substantively.
  - (1) It has the force of the indefinites a, any, a certain, as—
- "And if som Smithfield ruffian take up som strange going; som new mowing with their mouth; wrinchyng with the shoulder; som brave proverb, some fresh new othe, ... som new disguised garment... whatsoever it cost, gotten must it be."—ASCHAM, Schoolmaster, p. 44.
- "And yet he could roundlie rap out so many uglie othes as som good man of fourscore year old hath never heard named before."—Ib. p. 48.
  - "Some holy angel Fly to the court of England."—Macbeth, iii. 6.
- "The fireplace was an old one, built by some Dutch merchant long ago."—DICKENS.
  - "Sum holi childe."-Life of Becket, p. 104.
  - "per was sum prest."—WICKLIFFE, Luke i. 5.
  - "Sum 30ng man suede him."—Ib. Mark xiv. 51.
- "be33 wisstenn hatt him wæs summ unncuh sihhhe shæwedd."—Orm, 228,
  - "Sum déma wæs on sumere ceastre."-- Luke xviii. 2.

We find it sometimes with the genitive plural in O.E., as--

- "Dá com his féonda sum."-Matt. xiii. 25.
- (2) It expresses an indefinite part or quantity, as-
- "It is some mercy when men kill with speed."—Webster's Duchess of Malfy.
  - "The annoyance of the dust, or else some meat
    You ate at dinner, cannot brook with you."

    MIDDLETON'S Arden of Feversham.
  - "And perefore wol I make you disport
    As I seyde erst, and do you som comfort."

    CHAUCER, Prol. 1. 770.
  - (3) With plural substantives, as "some years ago."
  - "Some certain of the noblest-minded Romans."-Julius Casar, i. 3.
  - "And some I see . . .
    That twofold balls and treble sceptres bear."—Macbeth, iv. 1.
- "There be som serving men that do but ill service to their young masters."—Ascham, Scholemaster, p. 48.
  - "I write not to hurte any, but to profit som."-Ib.
  - (4) With numerals, in the sense of about:
  - "Surrounded by some fifty or sixty fathoms of iron cable."

    DICKENS.
    - "What a prodigy was't
      That from some two yards high, a slender man
      Should break his neck."

      I. WEBSTER. The White Devil.
    - "Some half hour to seven."

      BEN JONSON, Every Man in his Humow.
  - "A prosperous youth he was, aged some four and ten."

    GREENE, p. 66.
    - "Some dozen Romans of us."-Cymb. i. 7.
    - "Some day or two."-Kich. III. iii. 1.
  - "Dá wæron hi sume tén géar on þám gewinn."-BOETH. xviii. 1.

- (5) With the genitive pl., O.E. "éode eahta sum" = he went one of eight. We find in modern Scotch a remnant of this idiom in the phrase "a twasum dance," a dance in which two persons are engaged, and in the phrase foursome to denote a game of golf in which four players take part.
  - "Bot it (boat) sa litell wes, pat it

    Mychte our the watter bot thresum flyt" (carry).

    BARBOUR'S Brus, p. 63.
  - (6) In apposition instead of the partitive genitive, as--
    - " 5ef bou havest bred ant ale

pou del hit sum about."-BARBOUR S Brus, p. 98.

- "Summe heo fleizen to Irelonde."-Lazamon, iii. 167.
- "Sume 8á bóceras."-Matt. ix. 3.
- "Ac sume ge ne gelýfað."-John vi. 64.

Instead of this construction the partitive genitive was used as early as the twelfth century.

- "Sum of be sede feol an uppe be stane and sum among beornen."— O. Eng. Hom., First Series, p. 133.
  - "Summe off ure little flocc."—Orm. 1. 6574.

"Lo here a tale of 30w sum."
R. OF BRUNNE, Handlynge Synne, p. 309.

- "Summe of hem camen fro fer."—WICKLIFFE's Int. viii. 3.
- "be kynge and somme of hys defendede hem faste."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, I. 1290.
- 230. Some . . . some = alius . . . alius; alter . . . alter.
  - "Some thought Dunkirk, some that Ypres was his object."

    MACAULAY
    - "The work some praise, And some the architect."—MILTON, P. L. i. 731.
- "For books are as meats and viands are, some of good, some of evil substance."—Areopagitica, ed. Arber, p. 43.

"Some say he is with the Emperor of Russia, Other some, he is in Rome."—Comedy of Errors, iii. 2.

In Middle E. we find the singular as well as the plural, as-

- "Sum man hap an 100 wyues, sume mo, sum less."

  MAUNDEVILLE, p. 22.
- (c) Singular:—
  - "Som man desire) for to have richesse,
    And som man wolde out of his prisoun fayn."
    CHAUCER, Knightes Tale.
  - "He mot ben deed, he kyng as schal a page; Som in his bed, som in he deepe see, Som in he large felde, as men may se."—Ib.
  - "Sum was king and sum kumeling (foreigner)."

    Gen, and Ex. 1. 834.
- "Anum he sealde sif pund, sumum twá, sumum án."-Matt. xxv. 15.
- (b) Plural:-
  - "Somme the hed from the body he smote, Somme the arms, somme the shoulders."

    LONELICH'S St. Graal, p. 128.
- "Thus may men se that at thoo dayes summe were richere then summe and redier to give elmesse."—CAPGRAVE, p. 10.
  - "Of summe sevene and sevene, of summe two and two."—Ib. p. 16.
- "He bylevede ys folc somme aslawe and some ywounded."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 1. 4855.

Byron (Don Juan) uses some's = one's—

"Howsoe'er it shock some's self-love."

Heywood uses somes-

'But of all somes none is displeased
To be welcome."

231. Some is also used indefinitely with other, another-

"Who . . . hath . . . not worshipped some idol or another."

THACKERAY'S History of H. Esmond.

<sup>1</sup> Abbott's Shakespearian Grammar, p. 6.

- "By some device or other."
  SHAKESPEARE'S Comedy of Errors, i. 1.
- "By some accident or other."-HOBBES.

Some . . . many --

- "She pulleb up some be be rote,
  And manye wib a knyf sche schereb."—Gower.
- 232. COMPOUNDS OF SOME. Somebody, something, someone, somewhat, othersome, some-who.

#### Somebody-

"Ere you came by ther grove I was sombody,
Now I am but a noddy (i.e. a nobody."

Damon and Pythias, in Dodsley's Old Plays.

#### Something-

"When as we sat and sigh'd,
And look'd upon each other, and conceived
Not what we ail'd, yet something we did ail."

DANIEL'S Hymen's Triumph.

"For't must be done to-night, And something from the palace."—Macbeth, iii. 1.

"Sir, you did take me up when I was nothing,
And only yet am something by being yours."

B. and F. Philaster.

#### Some who-

- "But if somwho be flamme staunche."—GOWER'S Confess. i. 15.
  - "pan preyede pe rich mon Abraham
    pat he wolde sende Lazare or sum oper wham
    To hys brepryn alle fyve."
    R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, p. 209.

# Somewhat-

- "From them I should learn somewhat, I am sure,
  I never shall know here."—WEBSTER'S Duchess of Malfy.
  - "Duch. What did I say?

    Ant. That I should write somewhat."—Ib.
  - "There is somewhat in the winde."

    Damon and Pythias, in Old Plays, i. 193.

- "per where he was schotte, anoper chappelle standes, and somwhat of pat tre."—R. of BRUNNE'S Chron.
  - "He come to Pers pere he stode
    And askede hym sum of hys gode,
    Sumwhat of hys cloping."—R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne.
  - "bi brober hab sumwhat ageins bee."-WICKLIFFE, Matt. v. 23.
  - "Sumwhatt Icc habbe shæwedd zuw."—Orm. 958.

# Some one replaced the O. E. sum man.

- "Some one comes."-Longfellow.
- "Some one among all, Shew me herself or grave."—T. Heywood's Silver Age.

In Middle English, and here and there even in authors of the eighteenth century, as still dialectally, body is often used for person.

- "The beste bodi of the world in bendes was ibrougt."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 489.
  - "It shall be given away to some poor body."-WALTON, Angler, 56.

See New English Dictionary, s.v. body.

Robert of Brunne has sum oun (Handlynge Synne, p. 294) = some one.

Somdel = somedeal, is very common for somewhat.

#### Other some—

- "Other some [houses are made] with reede."--HAKLUYT, p. 504-
  - "Though some be lyes Yet other some be true."—Dodsley's Old Plays, ii. p. 74-

#### 233. All and some-

This phrase is exceedingly common in Middle E. and is equivalent to all and one = one and all, each and all.

"Stop your noses, readers, al. and some."-DRYDEN, Abs. and Achith.

- "pe tale ys wrytyn al and sum, In a boke of Vitas patrum." R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, l. 169.
- "For everi creature go schal By þat brugge, sum or al." Old Eng. Miscell. p. 225.

By tmesis we have "all together and sum."

- "Whyle they were alle together and sum."

  Play of the Sacrament, 1. 402.
- "Neither fals witnesse thou noon bere
  On no mannys matere, al neither somme."—Babee's Boke, p. 49.
- "(I have) nother witte enough whole and some."

  Damon and Pythias, Old Plays, p. 232.
- 234. One (O.E. án, Middle English on, oon) is the numeral one with extended applications. It is used substantively and adjectively. When used substantively, it has a plural ones and a genitive one's, and may be compounded with self.
- "One can only attribute the chameleon character in which one seems to figure to the want of penetration of one's neighbours."—Evening Standard, Sat. Oct. 1, 1870, p. 1, col. 3.
- "Once more I am reminded that one ought to do a thing oneself if me wants it to be done properly."—Ib. p. 1, col. 3.
  - "It is a pretty saying of a wicked one."

    TOURNEUR'S The Revenger's Tragedy.
- "Go, take it up, and carry it in. 'Tis a huge one; we never kill'd large a swine; so fierce, too, I never met with yet."—BEAUMONT ND FLETCHER, The Prophetess.
- "To yeelde one's heart unto commiseration is an effecte of facilitie, endernesse, and meeknesse."—MONTAIGNE'S Florio, p. 2.
  - "Well, well, such counterfeit jewels

    Make true ones oft suspected."—Webster's White Devil.
  - <sup>2</sup>35. Sometimes one = some one:—
- "But here cometh one; I will withdraw myself aside."-LILY'S

- "I hear one's pace, 'tis surely Carracas."

  R. TAYLOR'S The Hog hath lost his Pearl.
- "For taking one's part that is out of power."-King Lear, i. 3.
- 236. Chaucer uses one as a substantive with an adjective where it seems to be a substitution for wight, or person, as—
  - "I was a lusty oon."

    CHAUCER, The Prologue of the Wyf of Bath, 605.

In the thirteenth century we find thing, properly neuter, used in a similar manner (cp. the modern poor thing!).

"So pat his tuo lihere hinge: were at one rede." 1

Early Eng. Poems, p. 50.

One is used for thing in Chevelere Assigne, p. 15:

"But what broode on is pis on my breste,

\* \* \*

And what longe on is pis pat I shall up lyfte."

But this one is sometimes used instead of repeating the noun, as—

"Who embrace instead of the true [religion] a false one," where Hooker, Book v. ch. ii. 2, omits the indefinite one.

So Milton, Areop. p. 45: "It is a blank vertue, not a pure."

This usage does not explain the employment of one when it is preceded by a demonstrative, as the, this, &c., as the mighty one. Here the older writers employed the definite adjective with a final (inflexional) e, as the gode. The loss of this ending no doubt led to the introduction of one to supply its place. See p. 60.

- 237. The indefinite one, as in one says, is sometimes, but wrongly, derived from the Fr. on, Lat. homo. It is merely the use of the numeral one for the older man, men, or me.
- <sup>1</sup> Lithere thinge = wicked ones. This phrase is applied to Quendride (Kenelm's sister), and Askebert (Kenelm's guardian).

In the 'Morte d'Arthur' man is replaced by one when it relates to a feminine word.

- "He is man of such apparayle
  Off hym I have fulle mychelle drede."—Morte d'Arthur, p. 69.
- "Launcelot þan full stylle stoode,
  As man þat was moche[l] of myght."—1b. p. 118.
- "And one that bryghtest was of ble."-1b. p. 142.

## 238. Sometimes he occurs where we use one 2-

"He com himself alast ase he het was of alle men veirest."—Ancren Riwle, p. 388.

Ase be bet = as he that = as one that.

"The sunne nis boten a schadewe ase he het loseh here liht."—O. E. Hem. First Series, p. 185.

Ase be bet = as she that = as one that.

" As he that ay was hend and fre."-Morte d'Arthur, p. 23.

Cp. "----- he died

As one that had been studied in his death, To throw away the dearest thing he own'd."—Macbeth, i. 4.

"As one who would say, come follow . . . "

Belphegor in LAMB'S Dram. Poets, Bohn's Series, p. 532.

#### 239. Man.

"For your name,
Of . . . and nurderess, they proceed from you,
As if a man [= one] should spit against the wind;
The filth returns in's [= one's] face."—Webster's White Devil.

"As though a man would say," &c.—DRANT'S Sermons.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The form *men* for the singular, from which *me* comes by falling away of *n*, is to be explained by the fact that in the twelfth century, a final -an became -en; but *men* is often treated as a plural form in Middle E.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This use of *one* after as deserves some notice, as it has never been thoroughly explained.

This idiom answers to the Latin quippe qui, and therefore, one is the substitute for a relative. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, we find a relative instead of one; in later times he and man were substituted for it.

- "Vor be more bat a mon can, be more wurbe he is."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER.
  - "Vor, bote a man conne Frenss, me telp of him lute."—Ib.
- "So, pat man pat wolde [= siquis] him wul arise, delicacy is to despise."—Gower, iii. 40.
  - "Off pys bataille were to telle A man pat it wele undyrstode
    How knyhtes undyr sadels felle."—Morte d'Arthur, p. 89.

# 240. Appositional use of one.

This use of *one* has become archaic, having been replaced by the partitive genitive.

- "I am oon the fayreste."—CHAUCER'S Troylus and Cryseide, c. v. I.
- "He was oon in soothe, without excepcioun, oon the best on lyve."—Ib. Compl. of L. Lyfe, xxiii.
- "Lawe is one the best."-Ib. iii. 189.
- "For thys is one the moste synne."—ROBERT OF BRUNNE, p. 6.

#### In Shakespeare we find one with superlatives—

- "He is one the truest manner'd."—Cymb. i. 6.
- "One the wisest prince."-Hen. VIII. ii. 4.

In the fifteenth century we find the partitive form in usc, as—

"One of the strengest pyl."

LONELICH'S Seynt Graal, vol. i. p. 101.

Cp. the old use of some. See § 229.

- 241. Use of one before proper names.1
  - "You may say one Albert, riding by This way, only inquired their health."—R. TAYLOR'S Lingua!
- 242. For use of one = own, self, alone, see § 183.
- 1 For other instances see Hist. Outlines of English Syntax, § 263.

243. One =the same.

"That's all one to me."-GREEN, p. 86.

"'Tis all one

To be a witch as to be counted one."

DECKER'S Witch of Edmonton.

244. None, no (O. E. nán, Middle English non, noon, na = ne + án = not one).

No is formed from none by the falling away of n, and stands in the same relation to none as my and thy to mine and thine, and a to an.

*None* is used substantively and absolutely, and *no* adjectively—

- "But I can finde *none* that is good and meke."

  HAWES, P. of P. p. 136.
- "For surely there's none lives but 1 painted comfort."

  KYD'S Spanish Tragedy.
- "Thou shalt get kings, though thou be none."

  Macbeth i. 3.

It seems to be emphatic after the substantive—

- "Satisfaction can be none but by pangs of death."

  Twelfth Night, iii. 4.
- "And save his good broadsword he weapon had none."
  W. Scott.

In Middle E. (fourteenth century) non (none) and no are used much in the same way as an and a; none before a vowel, &c.

- "And for to fall it hath none impediment."

  HAWES, P. of P. p. 44.
- <sup>2</sup>45. **No,** though equivalent to *not one*, is often united to <sup>a</sup> plural substantive; thus we find in Middle English:
  - "Non houses."—MAUNDEVILLE, p. 63.

None is sometimes followed by other-

"Thou shalt have none other gods before me."-Deut. v. 7.

<sup>1</sup> But = that has not painted, &c.

In Middle English it is always non other, not no other, which would have sounded as strangely as a other.

246. No one is tautological, but it evidently replaces the Middle English no man, no wight.<sup>1</sup>

Sometimes not one is used in its place.

#### 247. Nothing, pl. Nothings.

"The other sorts of devils are called in Scripture dæmonia .... and which St. Paul calleth *nothings*: for an idol, saith he, is *nothing*."—HOBBES, v. p. 2111.

## 248. Aught, naught-

Aught, ought (O. E. áwiht, áht). Awiht contains the prefix á (as in O. E. ághwylc for á + gehwylc, each; áhwáðer, áwðer, Middle E. outher, ág-hwæðer, ægðer = either) the original signification of which is ever, aye (cp. Goth. aiw. Gr. åcí; and wiht (Goth. waihts), wight, whit, creature, thing, something.

"For aught I know, the rest are dead, my lord."
WEBSTER'S Appius and Virginia.

"Amongst so many thousand authors you shall scarse find one by reading of whom you shall be anywhit better."—BURTON'S Mel. p. 7.

Cp. "To luite ne to muche wiht."—Castel of Love, 1. 638.

- "pereof he ete a lytelle wight."—Morte d'Arthur, p. 36.
- "Syr Evwayne, knowistow any wight?"—Ib. p. 5.
- 249. Naught (O. E. náwiht,2 náht) and not (Middle English noght, nat) are negative forms of aught, so that not
  - 1 "Sche was vanyssht riht as hir liste, That no wyht bot hir-self it wiste." Gower, in Spec. of E. Eng. p. 371.
  - <sup>2</sup> As an adverb no whit is found as well as naught = not.
    - "I am no whit sorry."—Dodsley's Old Plays, ii. 84.
    - "Ector ne liked no wight
      The wordis that he herd there."—Morte d'Arthur.

a whit is pleonastic; in a whit the a must not be considered as the article; a whit = awhit = awiht or aught.

Naughts is used by Greene (p. 157) for nothings—

- "We country sluts of merry Fressingfield Come to buy needless naughts to make us fine."
- 250. **Enough** (O.E. genóh, Middle English ynough, ynow, enow, anow. Cp. Goth. ga-nôhs, Ger. genug).

Sometimes we find *enow* used as a plural, corresponding to Middle English *inohe*, *inowe*, in which the plural is marked by the final *e*.

- "Have I not cares enow and pangs enow?"—BYRON.
- "Servile letters enow." 1-Areopagitica, p. 40.
- 251. Any (O.E.  $\acute{e}nig = ullus$ ) is an adjective formed from the numeral  $\acute{a}n$  one. In Middle English we find  $\acute{a}ni$ ,  $\acute{a}i$ ,  $\acute{e}i$ , for  $\acute{a}ny$ , and La3amon has genitives,  $\acute{a}ies$  and  $\acute{a}ines$ .

We find a distinction in Middle English made between the singular eny, any, and the plural anie, anye.

- "And 3if hat eni him wraped adoun he was anon."
  ROBT. OF GLOUC.
- <sup>2</sup>52. Compounds are anyone, anybody, anything, Middle English any wight, any man, eny persone.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Unnebe eni mon miste shlis bowe bende."-ROBT. OF GLOUC.

Any originally had a negative  $n\dot{\omega}nig = \text{nullus}$ , of which a trace exists in the twelfth century.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Niss nani þing" = there is not anything.—Orm. i. 61, l. 1839.
"Nani man" = not any man.—Ib. p. 216. We use none instead:
"And as I had rather have any do it than myself, yet surely myself rather than none at all."—ASCHAM'S Scholemaster, p. 157.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Milton (Areopagit. p. 28, ed. Arber) writes anough adv

253. Each [O.E.  $\acute{e}ghuylc = \acute{a}-ge-hwilc$ ;  $\acute{e}lc = \acute{a}-ge-lic$ ; from  $\acute{a}$  (see remarks on aught), and lic = like; later forms are elc, elch, euch, uch, ych, ech, ilk].

It is properly singular, but has acquired a distributive sense. It is used substantively and adjectively.

"Of the fruit

Of each tree in the garden we may eat."—MILTON'S P. L. ix. 661.

- "Simeon and Levi took each man his sword."—Gen. xxxiv. 25.
- "Cloven tongues sat upon each of them."—Acts ii. 3.
- "At each his needless heavings."- Winter's Tale, ii. 3.
- "I a beam do find in each of three."—Love's Labour's Lost, iv. 3.

Each and every are used alike by Spenser:-

"She every hill and dale, each wood and plaine did search."—F. Q. i. 2, 8.

#### 254. Each is sometimes used for both—

"And each though enemies to either's reign Do in consent shake hands to torture me."

SHAKESPEARE'S Sonnets, 28.

Hence it often happens that *each* is wrongly followed by pronouns and verbs as the plural number.

- "Each in her sleep themselves so beautify."—Rape of Lucrece, 404.
- "How pale each worshipful rev'rend guest Rise from a clergy or a city feast."—POPE's Imit. Hor. ii. 75.
- 255. In the twelfth and following centuries, we find each followed by an, a, on = one.

"Ille an unnclone lusst,
Annd ille an ifell wille."—Orm. 5726.

- "Heo bigonne to fle echon."—ROBT. OF GLOUCESTER, 378.
- "Ilkon of be knightes had a barony."-R. OF BRUNNE'S Chronicle.
- "And ilka lym on ilka syde."—HAMPOLE'S P. of C.
- "Thei token ech on by hymself a peny."-WICKLIFFE, Matt. xx. 10.
- "For hit clam uche a clyffe."—Allit. Poems.

#### Each one is a remnant of this, as—

"The princes of Israel, being twelve men: each one was for the house of his fathers."—Num. i. 44.

Each other sometimes = each alternate, every other, as-

- "Each other worde I was a knave." -- Gammar Gurton's Needle.
- 256. Every is a compound of ever and each, O.E. áfre édc, Middle English æver-ælc, ever-ilk, ever-each. It was rare in the oldest stage of the language; it occurs frequently in Lazamon and other writers of the thirteenth century.
  - "Everile he keste, on ile he gret (wept)."-Gen. and Ex.
  - "Everich of you schul brynge an hundred knightes."

    CHAUCER'S Knightes Tale, 1. 993.
  - "Carry hym aboute to every of his friendes." Fardell of Facion, 8.
  - "Every of your wishes." Antony and Cleop. ii. 2.

We also find Middle English evrichon, everilkan = everyone. Everybody and everything are later formations.

The history of *every* having been forgotten in the sixteenth century, we find *every each*, like *not a whit, no one*, &c.

- "Every each of them hath some vices."—BURTON'S Mel. p. 601.
- 257. Either represents two distinct O.E. words: (1) *ies-hwæder*, Middle English *æither*, *aither*; (2) *á-hwæder*, *dwder*, *dder*, Middle E. *owther*, *outher*, *other*.<sup>2</sup>

The former of these, from d (= modern aye always) + ge + hwader (= whether) originally meant "each of two";

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here means each one [of you (two)].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cp. "For outer he sal be tane hate
And be toper luf after his state,
Or he sal be tane of tam mayntene
And be toper despyse."—HAMPOLE'S P. of C. p. 31.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Bot wip be world comes Dam Fortone, pat apper hand may chaunge sone."—Ib. p. 36.

our modern either, which represents this in form, has still sometimes, though rarely, its old sense.

"The king of Israel and Jehoshaphat sat either of them on his throne."—2 Chron. xviii. 9.

The O.E. áhwæðer (d + hwæðer) meant 'one or the other of two.' It survives as owther or awther in various dialects, where it is now regarded as a vulgar mispronunciation of either; the conjunction or is a contraction of it. The modern either, while in form representing ághwæðer, is with regard to its usual sense the representative of áhwæðer. This change of meaning is found already in writers of the fourteenth century, but was not common until the sixteenth century.

## Either has a possessive form-

- "Where either's fall determines both their fates."
  ROWE, Lucan, vi. 13.
- "They are both in either's power."—The Tempest.
- "Confute the allegations of our adversaryes, the end being truth, which once fished out by the harde encounter of either's arguments... both partes shoulde be satisfyed."--Gosson's School of Abuse, p. 46.
- 258. Neither, the negative of either as naught is of aught, appears first in the thirteenth century; the earlier word was O.E. nahwæder, nawher, Middle English nouther, which still survives in dialects; its contracted form is nor.
  - "Now new, now old, now both, now neither,
    To serve the world's course, they care not with whether."
    ASCHAM'S Scholemaster, p. 48.
  - "Neither of either, I remit both twain."

    Love's Labour's Lost, v. 2.
- "Truth may lie on both sides, on either side or on neither side." CARLYLE'S French Revolution, iii. 163.
- "Ac hor noper [but neither of them] . . . in pur rizte nas."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 68.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. "He ne had nouper strenpe ne myght, Nouper to ga ne ghit to stand."—HAMPOLE'S P. of C. p. 13.

It is sometimes, but wrongly, found with a plural verb, as-

"Thersites' body is as good as Ajax', When neither are alive."—Cymb. x. 2.

259. Other (O.E.  $\delta$ -ver, Goth. an-par = one of two, second and other. See remarks on numerals, p. 172).

This word originally belonged to the strong declension, making its plural *othre*, leaving *other* as the plural when the final *e* fell away, as

"When other are glad
Than is he sad."—SKELTON, i. 79.

"Some other give me thanks." - Comedy of Errors, iv. 3.

"Some other... do not utterlie dispraise learning, but they saie," &c.—Ascham's Scholemaster, p. 54.

Cp. "Other some."-Acts xvii. 18.

A new plural was afterwards formed by the ordinary plural suffix s.

Other's (O.E. ódres, óderes) is a true genitive.

"Let ech of us hold up his hond to oper,
And ech of us bycome operes broper."

CHAUCER, in Specimens of E. Eng. p. 353.

"And eyther dranke of operes bloode." - Gest. Rom. p. 19.

- 260. Another is a later form; 1 sum other was once used instead of it.
- 261. One another, each other, are sometimes called reciprocal pronouns; but they are not compounds: in such phrases as "love each other," "love one another," the construction is, each love the other, one love another; each and one being subjects, and other and another objects, of their respective predicates.

In Middle English we find each to other = to each other.

<sup>1</sup> Anober is used in the Ormulum.

We sometimes find ayther other = either other, in this sense, as-"Uche payre by payre to plese ayper oper."—Allie. Poems, p. 46.

Other what = what else occurs in Dodsley's Old Plays, ii. 67-

- "What strokes he bare away, or Other-what was his gaines, I wot not."
- "And (he) speke) of oper-hwat."-Ancren Riwle, p. 96.
- 262. Else (O.E. elles, the genitive of the lost pronoun elle, corresponding to Lat. alius 1).

We find it in Middle English after ought, nought, as in modern English. It has acquired an adverbial sense = aliter. Cp. Middle English owiht elles = aught of other = aught else.

- "A pouder \* \* \* \*

  I-maad, outer of chalk, outer of glas,
  Or som what elles."—CHAUCER, I. 13078.
- "So, what for drede and ellis, pey were hop ensuryd."

  Tale of Beryn, 1. 1122.

In the oldest English we had *elles hwæt* = aught else.<sup>2</sup> Sometimes we find *not else* = nought else.

- "In Moses' hard law we had

  Not else but darkness.

  All was not else but night."—Dodsley's Old Plays, p. 39.
- 263. Sundry (O.E. synderig = singularis, Middle English sundrie, sondry = separate) is now used in the plural—
  - "For sundry weighty reasons."-Macbeth, iii. 1; iv. 3.

It occurs, however, sometimes as a singular in older writers in the sense of separate.

- "Alc hefde sindri moder."-Laz. i. 114.
- "por was in helle a sundri sted."—Gen. and Ex. 1984, p. 37.

2 Els what in Chaucer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the oldest English we find a comparative elra.

So in Shakespeare-

"The sundry contemplation
Of my travels is a most humorous sadness."

As You Like It, iv. 1.

264. Several is used for sundry-

- "To every several man."-Julius Casar, iii. 2.
- "Two several times."-Ib. v. 5.
- "Truth lies open to all, it's no man's several."—BEN JONSON.
- "By some severals." Winter's Tale, i. 2.
- 265. **Divers** (Middle English diverse, O.Fr. divers), and different (Fr. différent), and Middle E. sere, ser (O.N. particular, separated), are sometimes employed for sundry.
- 266. Certain (from Lat. certus) is singular and plural, and is used substantively and adjectively.
  - "A certain man planted a vineyard."-Mark xii. I.
- "There came from the ruler of the synagogue's house certain which said."—Ib. v. 35.
  - "To hunt the boar with certain of his friends." Venus and Adonis.

Cp. is use as a substantive in the following passages:—

- "A certayn of variettes and boyes."-BERNER'S Froissart.
- "A certain of grain."-Fardell of Facion.
- "Beseeching him to lene him a certeyn
  Of gold, and he wold quyt it him ageyn."
  CHAUCER, Chanouns Yemannes Tale, 471.
- "Sit I wolle have anoper certayne." Gesta Rom. p. 23.

#### CHAPTER XIV

#### **VERBS**

- 267. VERBS may be classified into (a) transitive, requiring an object, as "he *learns* his lessons;" (b) intransitive, requiring no object, as "the sun *shines*."
  - 268. Transitive verbs only have a passive voice.

Transitive verbs include reflexive verbs, in which the agent and object are identical, as "he hurt himself," "I'll lay me down;" and reciprocal verbs, as "to love one another." These verbs admit of no passive voice.

269. Intransitive verbs include a large number that might be classed as frequentative, diminutive, inceptive, desiderative, &c.

Some intransitive verbs, by means of a preposition, become transitive, and may be used passively, as "the man laughs at the boy," "the boy was laughed at by the man."

Some intransitive verbs have a causative meaning, and take an object, as "he ran," "he ran a thorn through his finger." See Causative Verbs, under the head of VERBAL SUFFIXES.

270. Some transitive verbs are reflexive in meaning, though not in form, and appear at first sight as if used intransitively, as "he keeps aloof from danger," i.e. he keeps himself, &c. Cp. "he stole away to England."

Sometimes a transitive verb has a passive sense, with an active form, as "the cakes ate short and crisp" = the cakes were eaten short and crisp.

- 271. Intransitive verbs may take a noun of kindred meaning or object, called the cognate object, as to die a death, to sleep a sleep, to run a race.
- 272. Verbs used with the third person only are called impersonal verbs, as me *thinks*, me *seems*, it *rains*, it *snows*.
- 273. The verb affirms action or existence of a subject, under certain conditions or relations, called **voice**, **mood**, tense.

In some languages verbs undergo a change of form for voice, mood, and tense; the root being modified by certain suffixes before the personendings are added.

Thus in Latin the root reg is modified by the suffix s, to express time or tense; so the root reg becomes by this addition a stem to which the person ending i is suffixed; whence rexi, the perfect of reg-ere.

274. Voice.—There are two voices—(a) the active, in which the subject of the verb is represented as acting, as "I love John;" (b) the passive, in which the subject of the verb is represented as affected by the action, as "I am loved by John."

The passive voice in the original Aryan language, was formed by inflexion, and had primarily a reflexive sense. Of the inflected passive the only trace in English is the obsolete verb hight = is called. The passive voice in English is expressed by the passive participle combined with auxiliary verbs. The Scandinavian dialects have a special form for reflexive verbs. See p. 9.

275. There are five moods—(1) the *indicative* makes a simple assertion, states or asks about a fact; (2) the *subjunctive* expresses a possibility: it is sometimes called the conditional or conjunctive mood; (3) the *imperative* denotes

that an action is commanded, desired, or entreated; (4) the *infinitive* states the action without the limitations peculiar to *voice*, tense, &c., and is merely an abstract substantive; (5) participles are adjectives.

276. The tenses are three—(a) present, (b) past, (c) future.

An action may be stated with reference to time, present, past, and future, as (a) indefinite, (b) continuous and imperfect, (c) perfect, (d) perfect and continuous.

Hence we may arrange the *tenses* according to the following scheme:—

	Tense.	Indepinite.	IMPERFECT CONTINUOUS.	Perfect.	PERFECT Continuous.
	Present	I praise.	I am prais-	I have praised.	I have been praising.
-	Past 1	I praised.	I was prais- ing.	I had praised.	I had been praising.
	Future	I shall praise.	I shall be praising.	I shall have praised.	I shall have been praising.

277. For *I praise*, *I praised*, we sometimes use *I do praise*, *I did praise*, which are by some called emphatic present and past tenses.

I am going to praise is called intentional present.

I was going to praise ,, ,, past.

I shall be going to praise ,, , future.

In English we have only change of form for the present and past (or preterite); the other tenses are expressed by the use of auxiliary verbs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Modern grammarians use the term preterite.

- 278. There are two **numbers**, singular and plural; three persons, first, second, and third.
- 279. Conjugation.—Verbs are classified according to the mode of expressing the past indefinite tense, into (a) strong verbs, (b) weak verbs.

Strong Verbs.—The past (or preterite) tense of strong verbs is expressed by a change of vowel only.

Weak Verbs.—The past (or preterite) tense indefinite of weak verbs is expressed by adding to the verbal root the syllable d or its phonetic substitute t.

The distinction between strong and weak verbs must be clearly borne in mind.

- (1) Strong verbs have vowel change only; their past (or preterite) tense is not formed by adding -d or -t.
- (2) The passive participles of strong verbs do not end in -d or -t, as do those of weak verbs.
- (3) All p. participles of strong verbs once ended in -en (-n); but in very many p. participles this suffix has dropt off. The history of a word is sometimes necessary to be known before its conjugation can be decided.

Weak verbs sometimes have a change of vowel, and the addition of -d or -t, as bough-t; but this change is no result of vowel-gradation.

#### STRONG VERBS.

280. The strong verbs fall into two divisions:--

(1) In Aryan the perfect tense was invariably formed by means of reduplication, which is well known from the Greek, e.g.  $\phi \epsilon \dot{\nu} \gamma \omega$  (I flee),  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \cdot \phi \nu \gamma \alpha$  (I fled);  $\pi \epsilon i \theta \omega$  (I persuade),  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \cdot \pi o \iota \theta \alpha$  (I persuaded). In Teutonic reduplication was by degrees supplanted, and the mode of forming the preterite by means of vowel-change only took its place. In Old English only a few verbs clearly point to an original reduplication:—

#### GOTHIC.

#### OLD ENGLISH.

PRESENT.	PRETERITE.	PRESENT.	PRETERITE,
haira (I call)	hai 1-hait (I called)	háte	héht
laika (I leap)	lai <sup>1</sup> -laik (Ì leapt)	láce	le-olc
rêda (I advise)	rai <sup>1</sup> -rôþ (Í advised)	ræde	re-ord

but Gothic, in this as in many other points, has kept the old features more faithfully than the other Teutonic dialects, and from it we learn that all the verbs belonging under the first or *fall* class (see below, § 283) were originally reduplicating verbs.

- (2) The formation of the preterite of all the other strong verbs is based upon the regular change of the root-vowel, vowel-gradation, which is chiefly accounted for by difference of accent.<sup>2</sup> Thus the roots with the vowel e appear in three different shapes according to three degrees of accent:—
- (a) When the accent was shifted from the root to the suffix, as, for instance, in the past participle (cp. Greek ποιητός, τακτός), the root-vowel, which thus had become destitute of accent, disappeared altogether. Instances: Gothic t-unpus, O.E. tóp (tooth), from the root et (to eat; Latin ed-ere); Gothic s-ind, O.E. s-indon (they are) from the root es (to be; Latin esse); Gothic tr-iu, O.E. trέο(w) (tree; Greek δόρν).
- (b) Under certain other conditions of accent (not determinable with certainty) the root-vowel appeared as e or i. Instances:—Gothic itan, O.E. etan (to eat), Latin edere; Gothic bairan, O.E. beran (to bear), Latin ferre; Gothic wairþan, O.E. weorþan (to become), Latin verti.
- (c) Under a third variety of accent the root-vowel appeared as a. Instances:—The preterite singular of the above

<sup>· 1</sup> ai has the sound of  $\epsilon$  in  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \cdot \phi \nu \gamma \alpha$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the original Aryan language what is called *accent* was a raising of musical pitch on a particular syllable; but this seems to have coincided, at least usually, with a stress on the accented syllable.

mentioned verbs are in Gothic at (I ate), bar (I bore), warp (I became).

Just as e and a are seen changing with one another in roots with the vowel e, we find the root-vowel a, under similar conditions, regularly changing with  $\bar{o}$ . Instances:—Gothic ik fara, O.E. ic fare (I proceeded); but ic for (I proceeded). Ik baka, O.E. ic bace (I bake); but ic boc (I baked).

Setting apart vowel-relations of minor importance, we find in Teutonic, six groups of vowel-gradation, and accordingly six classes of strong verbs.

1.		a	O	O	a
2.		<b>e</b> (i)	a	ē	u(o)
3.		e(i)	a	ē.	e
4.	•	e(i)	a	u i	u(o)
3. 4. 5.		ĩ	ai	i	i
6.		eu	ลบ	11	11

The Old English equivalents for these vowels are :—

281. The following instances illustrate these groups in Gothic and Old English:—

$$I. \ a--\hat{o}.$$
fara (I proceed)
for (I proceeded)
for
$$for = \frac{1}{for} = \frac{1$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Past participle.

<sup>2</sup> ai here has the sound of e in bed.

<sup>3</sup> au here has the sound of o in borne.

III	r	e	•	 ۵	۵
					c.

qiþa (I speak) qaþ (I spoke)		qêþum (we spoke)	qiþans (spoken)						
cweðe cwæð		cwædon	[ge]cweden						
IV. e-a-u-u.									
binda (I bind)	band (I bound)	bundum (we bound)	bundans (bound)						
binde	band	bundon	bunden						
helpe (I help)	halp (I helped)	hulpon (we helped)	holpen (helped)						
V. îaii.									
beita <sup>1</sup> (I bite)	bait (I bit)	bitum (we bit)	bitans (bitten)						
bite	bát	biton	biten						
VI. eu—au—u.									
kiusa (I choose)	kaus (I chose)	kusum (we chose)	kusans (chosen)						
céose	céas	curon	coren						

- 282. If we look closely at the above columns, which represent successively the present, preterite singular, preterite plural, and the past participle, we find two striking facts:—
- (1) the root-vowel of the past participle is invariably short;
- (2) in several groups the final stem-consonants of the present and preterite singular is different from that of the preterite plural and the past participle of the same verb, e.g. cweőe (I speak)—cwað (I spoke)—cwædon (we spoke)—cweden (spoken); céose (I choose)—céas (I chose)—curon (we chose)—coren (chosen).

Other instances of this so called "grammatical change" are:-

sléa[h] (I slay), slóh (I slew), slógon (we slew), slægen (slain); ซwéa[h] (I wash), ซwóh (I washed), ซwógon (we washed), ซwægen (washed);

téo[h] (I drag), téak (I dragged), tugon (we dragged), togen (dragged);

<sup>1</sup> ei has the sound of ee in green.

sníde (I cut), snád (I cut), snidon (we cut), sniden (cut); séode (I'seethe), séad (I seethed), sudon (we seethed), soden (sodden); fréose (I freeze), fréas (I froze), fruron (we froze), froren (frozen); forléose (I lose), forléas (I lost), forluron (we lost), forloren (lost, forlorn).

Note.—The modern English adjectives forlorn, sodden, are instructive remains of the "grammatical change."

We see from the above instances that there is a regular relation between h, p, s, the voiceless consonants, as belonging to the present and the preterite singular, and the corresponding voiced consonants g, d, r, as belonging to the preterite plural and past participle.

Both these facts, namely, the shortness of the root-vowel in the past participle, and the change of final stem-consonants are easily explained, if we bear in mind that, in the prehistoric Teutonic period, both the preterite plural and the past participle had the accent on the suffix, not on the root-vowel; cf. Sanskrit bhid (to break)—bibhéda (I broke), with the accent on the e-bibhidima (we broke), with the stress on the a-bhina (broken), also with the stress on the a.

Thus the shortness of the root-vowel is explained by its want of accent, and, according to Verner's law, the final stem-consonants became voiced.

The strong verbs, thus, naturally fall into two divisions, reduplicative and gradation verbs, and both together form seven classes, which are properly named after characteristic verbs. They may be remembered by aid of the following doggerel couplet:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;If e'er thou fall, the shake with patience bear;
Give; seldom drink; drive slowly, choose with care." 1

203 Division 1. Class 1. of Patt Class	283	Division	I.	Class	I.	or	Fall-Class
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(1)	Pres. fall hold behold	Past. fell held beheld	P.P. fallen held beholden*1	O.E.	Pres. fealle healde	Pret. féoll héold	P.P. feallen healden
	hang	hung	hung hangen*	,,	hange	héng	hangen
(2)	gang, go sweep hate*	swep* hight	gone swepen* hoten*	,, ,,	gange, gá swápe háte	geong swéop héht hét	gangen swápen háten
	blow know crow	blew knew crew	blown known crown	", ",	bláwe cnáwe cráwe	bléow cnéow créow	bláwen cnáwen cráwen
	sow mow throw	sew* mew* threw	sown mown thrown	,, ,,	sáwe máwe Öráwe	séow méow Tréow	sáwen máwen Tráwen
(3)	let	let*2 leet*	leten*	,,	læte	leort, leot, lét	læten
(4)	sleep	slep* sleep*	slepen*	,,	slæpe	slép	slæpen
	leap	lep* leep*	lopen*	1,	hléape	hléop	hléapen
	beat	bet* beet* beat	beaten	,,	béate •	béot	béaten
	hew	hew*	hewn	,,	héawe	héow	heawen
(5)	row	rew*	rowen*	,,	rówe	réow	rówen
	grow	grew	grown	,,	grówe	gréow	grówen
	flow	flew	flown	,,	flówe	fléow	flówen
<b>(</b> 6)	weep	wep*	wepen*	,,	wépe	wéop	wépen

(1) Many verbs once belonging to this division have either become obsolete or have adopted a weak form for the past tense and p. participle, as—

# Well (O.E. weallan, to well up), fold, walk, low, row, span, leap, sweep, weep.

In the provincial dialects we find strong forms of some of these verbs still in use, as to row, past rew, p.p. rowen; to leap, past lop, loup, p.p. loupen; to weep, past wep; to sleep, past slep; to beat, past bett (Scotch). Cp.:—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Forms marked \* are obsolete, and weak forms have taken their places, as slept, hewed, wept, leapt, rowed. Some of these weak forms came in early—slepte, dredde = dreaded, as in the Ormulum.

<sup>2</sup> Let in twelfth century has a weak form, let-te, lætte.

- "Some to the ground were lopen from above."—SURREY, Æn. ii.
- "She brouhte the greyn from hevene to erthe and seew it. The erthe ther it was sowe was never ered."—Pilgrimage, p. 43.
  - "For while they be folden together as thorns."—Nahum x. 10.
    - "And sighing sore, her hands she wrung and fold."

      SACKVILLE'S Induction.
  - (2) Beat is weak in pret., but strong in p.p.
- (3) **Hew, sow, mow,** have now weak past tenses, but strong passive participles, as well as weak ones.

In the Bible we have p.p. heron and heroed.

The provincial dialects have strong forms, as *hew* = hewed, | sew = sowed, | mew = mowed, | snew = snowed.

- (4) **Hung** (past) = O.E. héng; it has also a weak past, hanged, and a weak p.p. hanged. In O.E. we find hangian, a derivative, and weak verb, making its past tense hangode.
- (5) Some passive participles have sprung from the past tense, as hung = hangen; held = holden; fell = fallen (Shakespeare, Lear, iv. 6).

Others have contracted forms of p.p., as sown = sowen, ic.

- (6) Hight = was called, originally the preterite of hátan (to |call), deriving from heht, the older form of hét, answering to Gothic haihait. The passive meaning of hight is accounted for by the analogy of the present hátte = Gothic haitada (I |am called), which was confounded with háte (I call) = Gothic haita,
  - "Johan hight that oon, and Alayn hight that other."

    CHAUCER, The Reeves Tale.

"That wretched wight
The Duke of Gloucester, that Richard hight."
SACKVILLE, Duke of Buckingham.

<sup>&</sup>quot;An ancient fabric rais'd t' inform the sight,
There stood of yore, and Barbican it hight."—DRYDEN.

## 284. DIVISION II. Class 1. or Drink-Class.

0 E

					(	D. E.	
	PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	PRES.	PRET. sing.	PRET. pl.	P.P.
(1)	) help	halp*1 holp*	holpen	helpe	healp	hulpon	holpen
	delve	dalf* dolve*	dolven*	delfe	dealf	dulfon	dolfen
	melt	malt* molt*	molten	melte	mealt	multon	molten
	yield	yold* vald*	yolden*	gilde	geald	guldon	golden
	swell	swoll* swall*	swollen	swelle	sweal	swullen	swollen
(2)	swim climb	swam clamb* clomb*	swum clomben*	swimme climbe	swamm clamb	swummon clumbon	swumme clumben
	began spin	began spun span*	begun spun	on-ginne spinne	ongann spann	ongunnon spunnon	ongunner spunnen
	win run	wan ran	won run	winne rinne	wan ran	wunnon runnon	wunnen runnen
	bind	bound	bound	yrne binde	arn band	urnon bundon	urnen bunden
	find	found	found	find	fand	fundon	funden
	grind wind	ground wound	ground wound	grinde winde	grand wand	grundon	grunden wunden
	slink	slunk	slunk	winde	wanu	wundon	wunden
	drink	drank	drunk	drince	dranc	drungen	druncen
	shrink	shrank	shrunk	for-scrince	-scrance	druncon scruncon	scruncen
	sink	sank	sunk	since	sanc	suncon	suncen
	stink	stank	stunk	stince			
	sing			singe	stanc	stuncon	stuncen
	spring	sang sprang	sung sprung	springe	sang sprang	sungon sprungon	sungen sprungen
	sting	stang		stinge			stungen
	swing	swung	stung swung	swinge	stang swang	stungon swangon	swungen
	wring	wrung	wrung	wringe	wrang	wrungon	wrungen
	ring	rang	rung	hringe	hrang	hrungon	hrungen
	cling	clang	clung	clinge	clang	clungon	clungen
	ding	dang*	dungen*				
(3)	carve	carf*	corven*	ceorfe	cearf	curfon	corfen
	starve	starf *	storven*	steorfe	stearf .	sturfon	storfen
	worth	warth* worth*	worthen *	weorthe	wearth	wurthon	worthen
	burst	burst barst* brast*	burst borsten* bursten*	berste	bearst	burston	borsten
	thrash	throsh*		Tersce	<b>Tearsc</b>	<b>Turscon</b>	Torscen
4)	fight	fought	fought foughten*	feohte,	feaht	fuhton	fohten

(1) To this division once belonged milk, yield, swallow, bellow, stint, burn, mourn, spurn, ding, carve, starve, burst.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Forms marked thus \* are obsolete.

Cp. "Forth from her eyen the crystal tears out brast."

SACKVILLE'S Induction.

"When Adam dalve, and Eve span, Who was then the gentleman? Up start the carle and gathered good, And thereof came the gentle blood."

BP. PILKINGTON (Parker Soc. p. 125).

- "I waked: herewith to the house-top I clamb."—SURREY, Æn. ii.
- "Who willingly had yielden prisoner."-Ib.
- "The yolden ghost his mercy doth require."-Surrey's Ecclesiastes.
- "Many founden it [greyn] and throsshen it."—Pilgrimage, p. 43.
- "Which hath dung me down to the infernal bottom of desolation." -- NASH'S Lenten Stuff.
- (2) We have many verbs with mixed strong and weak forms; the past tense may be weak and the p.p. strong, as, past, *clomb*, and p.p. *climbed*; or the past may be strong and the p.p. weak, as, past, *delved*, p.p. *dolven*. *Clemde* occurs in fourteenth-century English.

Swollen has almost given way to swelled.

**Helped** has replaced the old past, *holp*; <sup>1</sup> *holpen* as a p.p. is archaic, *helped* being now the regular form.<sup>2</sup>

- (3) Sometimes a strong participle is used simply as an adjective, as drunken, molten—"a drunken man," " molten lead;" in Micah i. 4, molten is used as p.p.; so in Elizabethan writers, sunken, shrunken.
  - "And the metalle be the hete of the fire malt."

    CAPGRAVE, p. 9.
  - "My heart is molt to see his grief so great."

    SACKVILLE'S Induction.
  - "As gold is tried in the oven, wherein it is molten."—COVERDALE.

<sup>1</sup> Holp is a preterite in Shakespeare. See King John, i. 1; Rich.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Holpen: "He hath holpen his people Israel"—Eng. Bible; "he halp his brother"—CAPGRAVE, p. 30; holp for holpen is found in Shakespeare, Tempest, i. 2.

(4) The verbs swim, begin, run, drink, shrink, sink, ring, sing, spring, have for their proper past tenses swam, began, ran, &c., but in older writers (sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) and in colloquial English we find forms with u, which have come from the preterite plural†passive participles.

Sometimes we actually find the past tense doing duty for the passive participle; thus Shakespeare has **swam** = swum (As you Like It, iv. 1), drank = drunk.

- (5) Many of those forms that originally had a in the past now have u, as spun, slunk, stunk, stung, flung, swung, wrung, clung, and strung (a modern form). "Sche flang from me" (Heywood's *Proverbs*, C. 4). Slang (1 Sam. xvii. 49).
- (6) Wound = past of to wind (up), but winded = past tense of to wind a horn; but Walter Scott has "his horn he wound" (Lady of the Lake).
- (7) Foughten occurs in Henry V. iv. 6: cp. "a hard-foughten feeld" (Heywood's Proverbs, E. 111). Starven, p.p. is used by Sackville: "her starven corpse" (Induction); "hunger-starven" (Hall's Satires); but "hunger-storved" (Gam. Gurton's Needle).

285. Division II. Class 11., or Bear-Class.

Pres.	Past. stole	P. P. stolen	Pres. stele	O.E. Pret. stæl <sup>1</sup>	P. p. stolen
(2) come	came	come	cume	com	cumen
(3) bear	bore bare	born borne*	bere	bær	
shear tear	shore* tore	shorn torn	scere tere	scær tær	scoren toren
(4) speak	spoke spake*	spoken spoke*	sprece brece	spræc bræc	sprecen brocen

The pret. pl. has a long vowel, as station, cwomon, baron, &c.

- (1) The old verbs quele (to die) 1 and nim (to take, rob) once belonged to this class.
- (2) In Middle English (fourteenth century, especially in the Northern dialects) we find the old æ represented often by a:—stal, bar, schar, tar, spac, brac; bare, brake, spake, are archaic; in the Southern dialect we find æ often changed to e, as ber, (beer), spec, brek.
- (3) Born and Borne, though the same words, have different meanings: borne = carried; born = brought forth.
- (4) In older writers, and sometimes in modern poetry, we find the *n* falling away (as in Old English): hence  $broke^2 = iroken$ ;  $spoke^3 = spoken$ ;  $stole^4 = stolen$ .

Shakespeare has "I have spake" (Henry VIII. ii. 4).

- (5) Shakespeare, Cymbeline, v. 5, has becomed.
- (6) The e in stole, &c., is no inflexion; it merely marks the length of the preceding vowel.

286. DIVISION II. Class III. or Give-Class.

PRES.	Past.	Р. Р.	PRES.	O.E. Pret.	Р. р.
(1) give weave	gave wove	given woven	gife wefe	geaf wæf	gifen wefen
(2) eat	ate eat	eaten eat	ete	æt <sup>5</sup>	eten
get	got gat*	gotten got	ongite 6	ongeat	ongeten
sit	sat	sat seten*	sitte	sæt	seten

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The causative of this verb is the weak verb quell, originally "to kill."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Measure for Measure, v. I.

<sup>3</sup> Walter Scott, Kenilworth.

<sup>4</sup> Milton.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Also *dt* with abnormal long vowel.
<sup>6</sup> Ongite = perceive, understand.

Pres.	Past.	Р.р.	Pres.	O.E. Pret.	Р. р.
tread	trod	trodden trod	trede	træd	treden
bid	bade bid	bidden bid	bidde	bæd	beden
	quoth		cwethe	cwæð	cweden
(3)	was			wæs	wesen
(4) wreak lie	lay	wroken* lain lien*	licge	læg	legen
see	saw	seen	seo (seohe) p	seah V. sâwon	ge-segen

- (1) Quoth, originally perfect, is now used as a present tense; the root of the present is seen in bequeathe. The present of was is lost; we have parts of the verb in wast, were, wert.
- (2) Mete (measure), wreak, weigh, fret, knead, once strong, have become weak. Cp.
  - "We shall not all unwroken die this day."-SURREY, Æn. ii.
- (3) In Middle English (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find gaf and gef, et and eet, quath and quod.
- (4) Bid=bade, arises out of the preterite plural; beden = bidden occurs in the fifteenth century; so seten for sat.

Boden = bidden, invited. "It happed hym that was boden, in lokyng on the walle to espye this ymage," &c. (Caxton's Golden Legend, fol. cclxix. col. 1). This verb properly belongs to Class VI. (Div. II.).<sup>2</sup>

Heywood uses the phrase "a geven horse" (Proverbs, B. ii.).

- (5) Walter Scott has eat = ate.
- (6) Gat is used by Shakespeare for got (past).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Spenser has a strong p.p. wroken (Shep. Cal.).
<sup>2</sup> Cp. O.E. béode, béad, boden, to bid, order.

(7) The ending of the passive participle has sometimes fallen away, as in bid = bidden; sat, the past indef., is used instead of the old participle seten.

Double forms of the p.p. are eaten and eat; 1 bidden and bid; 2 gotten and got; 3 trodden and trod; 4 woven and wove; 5 lien 6 (= M.E. i-leye = ileien = O.E. ge-legen) and lain.

287. DIVISION II. Class IV. or Shake-Class.

				O.E.	
PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	Pres.	PRET.	P.P.
stand	stood	stood	stande	stód	standen
swear	swore	sworn	swerige	swór	sworen
shape	shope*	shapen*	scape	scóp	scapen
l cave	hove*	hoven*	hebbe	ahóf	hafen
grave	grove*	graven*	grafe	gróf	grafen
shave	shove*	shaven*	scafe	scóf	scafen
lade	-	laden	hlade	hlód	hladen
wash	wesh*	washen*	wasce	wósc	wæscen
bake	book*	baken*	bace	bóc	bacen
shake	shook	shaken	scace	scóc	sc <b>d</b> cen
forsake	forsook	forsaken			
awake	awoke	awoke	wace	<b>w</b> óc	wacen
draw	drew	drawn	drage	dróh	dragen
gnaw	gnew*	gnawn*	gnage	gnóh	gnagen
laugh	lough*	laughed	hlehe	hlóh	
slay	slew	slain	slea	slóh	sløegen
wax	wex*	waxen*	weaxe	wéox	weaxen
	wox*				

(1) Fare, wade, ache, gnaw, wash, step, laugh,7 yell, wax,8 bake,9 have at present weak past tenses and passive participles.

<sup>3</sup> English Bible.

<sup>1</sup> Shakespeare, King John, i. 1. <sup>2</sup> Milton, Paradise Lost, vii. 304.

<sup>4</sup> Shakespeare, King Richard II. ii. 2.

Milton, Paradise Lost, ix. 839.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> English Bible and Shakespeare, now archaic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Scotch has leugh = laughed (past).

Spenser has woxe, past woxen, p.p.

Baken = baked, p.p. in Leviticus ii. 4. "My spirit is waxen weak and feeble."-Ps. lxxvii. COVERDALE.

Cp. "Sapience this bred turnede and book it."—Pilgrimage, p. 44. Beuk = book occurs in Ramsay's Gentle Shepherd, ii. 1.

Gnew = gnawed occurs in Mirrour for Magistrates, vol. ii. p. 74.

- "Gnew and fretted his conscience."—Tynnall's Prol. to Jonas, Parker Soc. p. 456. Shakespeare has begnawn, Tam. of Shrew, iii. 2.
  - "He flay a lion."-CAPGRAVE.
  - "Both flayn and hedid" (= beheaded). Ib. Chron. p. 61.
  - "Zoroaster low as no child did but he."--Ib. p. 26.
  - "There he wesh me, there he bathed me."-Pilgrimage, p. 8
  - "And in here owen blood han washen hem."-1b.
  - "She . . . heff up hire axe to me."-Ib. p. 111.
  - "She said her hede oke."-La Tour Landry.
- (2). (a) Strong forms have been replaced by weak ones in the past tense of **shape**, **grave**, **shave**, **lade**, &c. Strong participles of these are occasionally met with, as **shapen** (Ps. li. 5), **graven** (p.p. in Byron, Childe Harold, i.; as an adjective, in English Bible, Ex. xx. 4; p.p. Ps. xcvii. 7), **loaden** = laden (Milton P. Lost, iv. 14; Bacon, Essays). "The heavier the ship is loaden, the slower it goes" (Bp. Pilkington, p. 208). Cp.
  - "And masts unshave for haste."-SURREY, Æn. iv.
  - "With such weapons they shope them to defend."—Ib. Æn. ii.
- (b) We have also double forms, a strong and a weak one, in the past tense, as woke and waked; hove and heaved.
- (c) We sometimes in Shakespeare find forms of the past tense employed for the p. participle, as arose (Comedy of Errors, v. 1) = arisen; shook (King John, iv. 2; Othello, ii. 1; Milton, vi. 219) = shaken; forsook (Othello, iv. 2) = forsaken; took (Twelfth Night, iv. 2; Julius Cæsar, ii. 1) = taken; mistook (Julius Cæsar, i. 2; Milton, Arcades) = mistaken; shaked, too, occurs for shaken (Ps. cix. 25; Troilus and Cressida, i. 3; Henry V. ii. 1; Tempest, ii. 1).

- (3) **Stood**, p.p. is properly a past tense; the old p.p. = standen. Cp. the p.p. understanden and understand.
  - "Have I understand thy mind?"-COVERDALE, p. 457.
- (4) **Sware** occurs in *Mark* vi. 23, *Titus Andronicus*, iv. 1; but the *a* is not original, but probably has come in through false analogy with *spake*, *bare*, &c.

288. DIVISION II. Class V. or Drive-Class.

					O.E.		
	PRES.	PAST.	Р. г.	PRES.	PRET. sing		Р. р.
	shine	shone	shone	scine	scán		scinen
(2)	drive	drove	driven	drife	dráf	drifon	drifen
	shrive			scrife	gescraf	gescrifon	gescrife
	thrive rive	throve rove*	thriven		-		
(2)	bite	bot*	riven bitten	bíte	bát	biton	biten
(3)	smite	smote	smitten	smite	smát	smiton	smiten
	write			write	wrát	writon	writen
	a-bide		abiden*		bád	bidon	biden
	chide	chode*	chidden	cíde	cád	cidon	ciden
		chid					
	ride	rode	ridden	ríde	rád	ridon	riden
	slide	slode*	slidden }	áslíde	áslád	áslidon	ásliden
	stride	strode	stridden	stríde	strád	stridon	striden
	writhe						
	wreathe /	writhed	writhen*	wriþe	wráþ	wridon	wriden
	rise	rose	risen	áríse	árás	árison	árisen
	arise	arose	arisen				
	strike <sup>1</sup>	struck	struck stricken	stríce	strác	stricon	stricen

- (1) Gripe (=grasp), spew, slit, wreathe (writhe), sigh, rive, once belonged to this class, but have become weak: riven is used as an adjective.
- (2) Most of these verbs have changed the d of the past into o, as **shone**, drove, &c.

 $<sup>\</sup>frac{1}{strice}$  Orm. has strike, strac, as in modern English; in the oldest English strice = 1 go.

The older forms sometimes occur, as **drave** (in English Bible and Shakespeare), **smate**, &c. "Absalom *drave* him out of his kingdom" (Coverdale); "strake me with thunder" (Surrey, Æn. ii.); "he with his hands strave to unloose the knots" (1b.).

- (3) Just as we found sung = sang, swum = swam, properly preterite plural forms, so we find, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, driv = drove, smit = smote, rid = rode, ris = rose, writ = wrote. Cp. bit for Middle English bot, boot.
- (4) Shortened forms of the participles occur, as writ = written (Twelfth Night, v. 1; Richard II. ii. 1), smit = smitten, chid = chidden, slid = slidden.
- **Chid**, O.E. *cidde*, Middle English *chidde*, is a weak form: "the eldest *chidde* with the knight" (*La Tour Landry*, p. 19).<sup>1</sup>
- (5) Past tenses are also used for the participles, as drove = driven, (2 Henry VI. iii. 2), rode = ridden (Henry IV. v. 3; Henry V. iv. 3), smote = smitten (Coriolanus, iii. 1), wrote = written (Lear, i. 2; Cymbeline, iii. 5), arose = arisen (Comedy of Errors, v. 1).
- (6) Weak forms of the passive participle are rived (Julius Cæsar, i. 3), strived (Rom. xv. 20), shrived (King John, ii. 4).
- (7) In shone for shinen, abode for abiden, struck for stricken, we have the substitute of the past tense for the participle.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chode occurs in the Bible (Gen. xxxi. 36, Numbers xx. 3). Chide, p.p. in Shakespeare.

- (8) For stricken and driven we sometimes find strucken (Milton, ix. 1064; Julius Cæsar, iii. 1); "the clock hath strooken four" (Lodge's A Looking glass for London); droven = driven (Antony and Cleopatra, iv. 7).
- (9) **Shined** = shone (Ezek. xliii. 2). Shinde occurs in the fourteenth century.
- (10) Wreathen, as adjective, occurs in *Timon of Athens*, iii. 2, "that sorrow-wreathen root;" "wreathen cables" (Surrey,  $\mathcal{E}n$ . iv.). It occurs in *The Newfounde World* as a p.p.: "out of which may be wrong or writhen water." Abiden occurs in the English Bible. "He had bid" = abiden = endured (Sidney's Arcadia).

289. DIVISION II. Class VI. or Choose-Class.

OE

			O.E.					
Pres. creep shove	PAST. crop* shof*	P.P. cropen* shoven*	Pres. creope scéofe	PRET. sing. créap scéaf	PRET. pl. crupon scufon	P.P. cropen scofen		
cleave	clave*	cloven	cléofe	cléaf	clufon	clofen		
shoot seethe	shot	shotten* sodden sod	scéote séoðe	scéat séað	scuton sudon	scoten soden		
choose	chase*	chosen	céose	céas	curon	coren		
freeze	froze	frozen	fréose	fréas	fruron	froren		
lose	lost	losen*	forléose		forluron	forloren		
suck	sook*	soken*	súce	séac	sucon	socen		
fly	flew	flown	fléoge \	fléah	flugon	flogen		
flee	flew*		fleohe i	nean	nagon	nogen		

(1) Many verbs belonging to this class have become weak, as creep, cleave, seethe, lose, chew, rue, brew,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. Scotch crap (Gentle Shepherd, v. 1).

dive, shove, slip, lot, fleet, reek, bow, suck, lock. Cp.

- "She shof me with hire knyf."-Pilgrimage, p. 132.
- "Shoven on thilke spere." Ib. p. 130.
- "Ther sook never noon suich milk."-Ib. p. 205.
- (2) Creep, cleave, bereave, flee, lose, shoot, shorten the long vowel of the present in the weak form of their past tenses.
- (3) Clave and cloven occur in the English Bible (Genesis xx. 3, Ps. lxxviii. 15, Acts ii. 3); cleft, p.p., in Micah i. 4 (cp., too, a "cleft palate," but a "cloven foot"); chase in Surrey's poems; 1 shotten occurs in shotten herring (1 Henry IV.) = a herring that has deposited its roe; forlorn (Milton, Paradise Lost, ii. 6—15) = forlosen. 2 Milton has frore, Spenser from = frozen; froze = frozen occurs in Shakespeare, 2 Henry IV. i. 1. Sodden occurs in English Bible; cp.
  - "Twice sod simplicity."-Love's Labour's Lost, iv. 2.
  - "Sodden water."-S. ROWLANDS.
  - "Beer he protests is sodded and refined."--Ib.
  - "With rost or sod."-Ib.
- (4) Flee has a weak past tense and p.p. fled; these are really from another verb, in Middle English flede.
- 290. Some verbs that have now a strong past tense, or p.p. were once weak, as—

<sup>2</sup> "With gastly lookes as one in manner lorne."—SACKVILLE, Induction, st. 78.

Forlore (cp. frore): "Thou hadst not spent thy travail thus, nor all thy pain forlore."—SURREY (ed. Bell), p. 80.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;Shelton for love, Surrey for lord thou chase."-P. 92 (Bell's edition).

Pres.	Past.	P. P.
(I) wear	wore ware*	worn
(2) stick	stuck stack*	stu <b>ck</b>
(3) betide	betid <sup>1</sup>	betid
(4) dig	dug digged*	dug digged*
(5) hide	hid <sup>1</sup>	hidden hid
(6) spit	spit* spat 1	spitten* spitted* spat
(7) show	*ionine	shown shewed showed

# Stack = stuck is used by Surrey:

"Which he refused and stack to his intent."—Virgil, ii. (ed. Bell), p. 170.

#### WEAK VERBS.

291. The verbs of the strong conjugation we have seen form the past (or preterite) tense by a change of the root-vowel; weak verbs by means of a suffix -d or -t.

In Gothic and Old Saxon this suffix was, in the first person singular -da, in Old E. -de.

Сотніс.	OLD ENG.
nasi-da (I saved)	nerede
nasi-dês (thou savedst)	neredes(t)
nasi-da (he saved)	nerede
nasi-dêdum (we saved)	neredon
nasi-dêduþ (you saved)	neredon
nasi-dêdun (they saved)	neredon

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Betid, hid and spat are only apparently strong; in O.E. we find be-tid-de, hid-de, spatte.

- 292. The suffix -da was, in Teutonic, united to the root by means of:—
  - (1) -i, shortened from -jo or -io;
  - $(2) \bar{o};$
- (3) e (in Gothic ai); and, accordingly, there were three different classes of weak verbs in the Teutonic dialects:—
- (1) The -jo or -io class. This -jo is no longer to be found in its integrity in Old English, but it gives the whole class its characteristic feature, namely the *vowel-mutation*.

Сотніс.	OLD ENG
nas-ja (I save)	nerie
nas-jis (thou savest)	neres(t)
nas-ji) (he saves)	nere8
nas-jam (we save)	neria <b>*</b>
nas-jiþ (you save)	neriað
nas-jand (they save)	neriað

All the causative verbs belong to this class:-

```
bidan (to bide)—bédan (to cause to bide, to constrain, to stop; l'on (to go)—lédan (to cause to go, to bring forth, to lead); risan (to rise)—réran (to raise); bigan (to bow)—bigan (to cause to bow, to bend); drincan (to drink)—drenc(e)an (to give drink, to drench); sincan (to sink)—senc(e)an (to cause to sink); sittan (to sit)—settan (to set); licgean (to lie)—lecg(e)an (to lay).
```

The verbs of the -jo class form their preterite in several ways:—

(a) Verbs with a short root vowel add -ede to the stem, as ner-e-de (I saved) from nerian (to save), her-e-de (I praised) from herian (to praise), styr-e de (I stirred) from styrian (to stir).

(b) Verbs with a long root-vowel add -de to the stem, e being dropped after a long vowel, as in dém-de (I deemed) from déman (to deem), décl-de (I dealt) from déclan (to deal), fyll-de (I filled) from fyllan (to fill).

Originally these verbs had no vowel-mutation in the preterite and past participle, because the suffix -de was added to the root without the means of the vowel e (originally i), so that there was nothing to alter the root-vowel; but the analogy of verbs with short root-vowels, as nerian — nerede, herian — herede introduced the vowel-mutation into the verbs with long root-vowels, and only a few resisted the analogy and kept their original vowels. Thus we have:—

```
sellan, Gothic saljan (to sell), but s(e)al-de (I sold), tellan (to tell), but t(e)al-de (I told); byegean (to buy), but boh-te (I bought); tele(e)an (to teach), but telhe (I taught); sele(e)an (to seek), but soh-te (I sought); wyre(e)an (to work), but worh-te (I wrought).1
```

Here belong also the verbs *bring* and *think*, whose preterites were in Teutonic *branhta*, *thanhta*, and became in prehistoric Old E. *bronhta*, *thonhta*, and after the dropping of *n*, *bróhte*, *5óhte*.<sup>2</sup>

(2) The  $\bar{o}$ -class. The  $\bar{o}$  in Old E. is not recognisable in the present tense, but it is characteristic of the preterite and the participle past:—

Other Old E. instances are :-
cwellan (to kill), cwealde (I killed), gecweald (killed);

stellan (to lace), stealde (I placed), gesteald (placed);

streccean (to stretch), streatte (I stretched), gestreatt (stretched);

deccean (to cover), deatte I covered), gedeatt (covered);

weccean (to wake), weatte (I woke), geweatt (woke).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Methought is the preterite of dyncan (to seem), while thought belongs to dencan (to think). In Mid. E. the two verbs are no longer kept apart.

Сотніс.	OLD E.
salb-δ (I anoint)	seal fie
salb-6s (thou anointest)	scalfast
salb-op (he anoints)	sealfa8
salb-ôm (we anoint)	seal fia <b>ð</b>
salb-ôþ (you anoint)	seal fia8
salb-ond (they anoint)	scalfiað
salh-ô-da (I anointed)	sealfode
salb-ô-dês (thou anointedst)	sealfodes(t)
salb-δ-da (he anointed)	sealfode
salb-ô-dêdum (we anointed)	sealfodon
salb-ô-déduþ (you anointed)	sealfodon
salb-ô-dêdun (they anointed)	sealfodon

A great many intransitive verbs that are derived from adjectives belong to this class:—

```
bealdian (to be brave), from beald (brave, bold); blician (to be pale), from blic (pale); collian (to become cool), from coll (cool, cold); hwitian (to be white), from hwit (white); longian, langian (to grow long), from long (long); nearwian (to become narrow), from nearu (narrow).1
```

(3) e- (Gothic ai-) class. The e is hardly recognisable in the present tense, and is altogether lost in the preterite.

Сотніс.	Old E.
haba (I have)	hæbbe
habais (thou hast)	hafas(t)
habaib (he has)	hafab
habam (we have)	habbab
habaiþ (you have)	habbaþ
haband (they have)	habbaþ
hab ai-da (I had)	hæfde
hab-ai-dés (thou hadst)	hæfdes(t)
<i>hab-ai-da</i> (he had)	hæfde
hab-ai-dêdum (we had)	hæfdon
<i>hab-ai-dêdu</i> þ (you had)	hæfdun
hab-ai-dêdun (they had) •	hæfdon

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If the verbs derived from the same adjectives belong to the jeclass, they have a transitive or rather causative meaning: byldan (to make bold), blacan (to bleach), celan (to cool, chill), hwllan (to make white), lengan (to make long), genyrwan (to make narrow). Cf. Latin albare (to make white) and albere (to be white), from albus.

Of this class, which was very numerous even in Old High German, there are only a few remnants left in Old E., namely the verbs habban (to have), libban (to live), sec3(e)an (to say), hycg(e)an (to think), and a few others.

- 293. In Middle E., when unaccented a, o, and u became e, the three classes of weak verbs were no longer distinguished from one another, so that in Modern E. we have in reality only one class with the vowel e between root and suffix.
- (1) This e, however, is only preserved when the suffix -d is to be united to a root ending in a dental, as head-e-d, waft-e-d well-e-d.

In all other cases, though we write ed, we drop the e in pronunciation, and loved, praised, &c., are pronounced as loved, praized, &c.

If the verb ends in a voiced consonant or a vowel, ed has the sound of d; if in a voiceless consonant, it has the sound of t.

- (a) There are some orthographical variations—(t) the change of y (not preceded by another vowel) into i before the addition of ed, as carry, carried: (2) doubling of a simple consonant after a short vowel before ed is added, as beg, begg-ed, wet, wett-ed.
- (b) The loss of the final e (of O.E. -ed-e) no longer enables us to distinguish the past tense from the passive participle.
- (2) Before the addition of the suffix d the radical vowel is sometimes shortened, as hear, heard.
- (3) If a root ends in d, the suffix d is dropped and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as—

Pres.	Past.	P. P.
lead	led	led <sup>1</sup>
feed	fed	fed
read	read	read
spread	spread	spread

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> O.E. libde; libd-de; libd-ed: later forms, lede; ledde (ladde); iled, ilad,

(4) t has replaced d in some verbs ending in -l or -n, as

PRES.	Past.	Р. Р.		
feel	felt	felt		
deal	dealt	dealt		
smell	smelt	smelt		
mean	meant	meant		

(5) Sometimes d and t are found side by side, as—

dream	dreamt	dreamt
	dreamed	dreamed
burn	burnt	burnt
	burned	
learn	learnt	learnt
	learned	

(6) t replaces d after p, v, ch (but the spelling ed is retained), s, and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as—

creep	crept	crept
sleep	slept	slept
weep	wept	wept
cleave	cleft	cleft
lose	lost	lost
fetch	fetched (pro	onounced fetcht)

Elizabethan writers have the following old forms:-

blench	blent	blent
drench	dreynt	dreyn
ming (mingle)	meynt	meynt

Chaucer and other writers of his time have-

singe	seynde	seynd
sprenge (sprinkle)	spreynte	spreynd, spreynt
quenche	queynt	queynt
clenche (clinch)	cleynte	cleynt

(7) Verbs ending in *ld*, *nd*, *rd*, change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and passive participle, and the suffix disappears, as—

PRES.	Past.	Р. Р.
build	built (builded)	built1 (builded)
gild bend	gilt (gilded)	gilt (gilded)
bend	bent	bent (bended)2
rend	rent	rent
gird	girt	girt

(8) The suffix d is often dropped after d, t, the combination st, rt, ft, and the present, past, and passive participles have the same form, as—

rid	rid	rid
shred	shred	shred
cut	cut	cut
light	light	light
put	put	put
shut	shut	shut
cast	cast	cast
lift	lift (obsolete)	lift (obsolete)
hurt	hurt	hurt

Some of these verbs have the regular form, as *lighted*, quitted, &c., and in O.E. of the fourteenth century we find autted, putted.

294. Catch, (from O.Fr. cachier, low Latin captiare) caught, caught, does not occur in the oldest English; in La3amon we find cache, cahte, caht. This verb has conformed to the past tense of teach, &c.

Analogous to the above forms we find fraught (adj.) as well as freighted; distraught and distracted.

<sup>&</sup>quot;His head dismember'd from his mangled corpse,
Herself she cast into a vessel fraught
With clotter'd blood."—SACKVILLE'S Duke of Buckingham.

<sup>&</sup>quot;And forth we launch full fraughted to the brink."-Induction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> We meet with this change in the fourteenth century. In the earlier periods we find bulde = built, in which the d has dropt or become assimilated to the root.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These forms have different meanings, as "He was bent upon mischief," "On bended knees."

295. The following verbs are peculiarly formed-

	PRES.	PAST.	Р. р.
(1)	clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad

In the oldest English cláðian = to clothe; perf. cláðode, p.p. cláðod.

In the thirteenth and following centuries we find clothien, clethen, to clothe; perf. clethed, clothed, and clad, cled; p.p. clothed, clad.

Clad seems to have arisen out of analogy with such O.E. forms as ladde = led, radde = read.

	PRES.	Past.	P. P.
(2)	make	made	made
	O.E. mace	macode	macod.

The loss of k occurs as early as the thirteenth century; in northern dialects it is found in the present-stem: maa as infinitive, he mas for he makes, are as old as the fourteenth century.

# (3) Have, had, had; O.E. hæbbe, hæfde, ge-hæfd.

In later periods we have, in the past tense, hafde, hedde, hadde; in p.p. ihaved, ihafd, yhad.

(4) Say, said, said; O.E. seege, seegde (sæde), sægd (sæd).

Lay, laid, laid; O.E. lecge, legde (lêde), leged.

The modern say, lay (= Middle English seye, leye), come from the inflexional forms which had in O.E. g and not co-

Went was originally the past tense of wend, O.E. wendan, to turn, go; it replaced O.E. &o-de, Middle English 3ede, yode.

### VERBAL INFLEXIONS.

296. The elements in the verb are (1) the root; (2) mood suffixes; (3) tense suffixes; (4) the person-endings (the mood and tense suffixes come before the person-endings); (5) connecting vowel between root and suffixes.

# 297. PRESENT INDICATIVE.

In some verbs the person-endings were added at once to the root without any stem-forming suffix, as in the verbs **go** and **do**:—

Go, O.E., sing., 
$$gd$$
  $gdest$ ,  $gde-b$  =  $go$ ,  $goest$  (=  $go-st$ ),  $goeth$ ,  $goest$  (=  $gos$ ).

pl.  $gdest$   $gdds$ ,  $gdest$  =  $go$ ,  $go$ ,  $go$ .

Do, O.E., sing.,  $dd-m$ ,  $dd-st$ ,  $dd-st$  =  $do$ ,  $do-st$ ,  $do-th$  ( $does$ ).

pl.  $dd-st$ ,  $dd-st$ ,  $dd-st$  =  $do$ ,  $do$ ,  $do$ .

In other verbs a connecting vowel came in between the root and the personal suffixes; this often disappears in modern English:—

Goth. O.E.

Singular. I bair-a, ber-e = bear.

2 bair-i-s, 
$$\begin{cases} ber-e-st \\ bir-st \end{cases}$$
 = bear-e-st.

3 bair-i- $\emptyset$   $\begin{cases} ber-e-\emptyset \\ (bir-\emptyset) \end{cases}$  = bear-e-th (bear-s).

Plural. I bair-a-m, ber-a- $\emptyset$  = bear.

2 bair-i- $\emptyset$ , ber-a- $\emptyset$  = bear.

3 bair-a-nd, ber-a- $\emptyset$  = bear.

298. In the Middle English dialects (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find in the plural—

<sup>1</sup> In O.II.Ger, we have older forms:—

## Southern, Midland, Northern,

1 ber-cth, ber-en, bere (ber).
2 ber-cth, ber-en, beres (bers).
3 ber-cth, ber-en, beres (bers).

g our cin, our cin, our ou

In Chaucer e was a distinct syllable, as "I drede nought that either thou shalt die," &c. In modern English it has wholly disappeared; in the plural the connecting vowel and suffixes are lost.

In Middle E. (as in Lazamon) we find *i* representing the stem-suffix in the infinitive of verbs of the *o*-class and those which in O.E. ended in *-ian*, as *lov-i-en*, *lov-i-e*, &c., and in the present indic. as *lch lov-i-e*, &c.

Many strong verbs had in Teutonic a stem-suffix -jo in the infinitive and present tense; this, like the same suffix in the -jo class of weak verbs, is represented in O.E. by a doubling of the final consonant of the root in the infinitive, the first person singular and the plural; as O.E. (1) sitte (2) sit-est, (3) sit-eth = (1) sit, (2) sittest, (3) sitteth.

The silent e in some few verbs like hav-e, liv-e, which adds nothing now to the length of the preceding vowel, was once sounded.

## 299. PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

This mood originally had a tense suffix which came between the connecting vowel and the personal ending.

	Goth.	O.E.		Eng.
Singular.	1 bair-a-u,	ber-c	=	bear.
_	2 bair-a-i-s,	ber-e	=	bear.
	3 bair-a-i,	ber-e		bear.
Plural.	1 bair-a-i-ma,	ber-en	=	bear.
Singular.	ı sôk-j-au,	séc-e	=	seek.
	&c.	&c.		&c.

## 300. PAST INDICATIVE.

Strong verbs in Teutonic lost their stem-vowel and the suffixes of first and third person singular, as:—

```
Goth. O. E.

Singular. I hai-hald = héold = held.

2 hai-hals-t = héold-e = heldest.

3 hai-hald = héold = held.

Plural. I hai-haldum = héold-on = held.
```

301. Weak verbs added the syllable -de (-te) to the stem; in O.E. the stem vowel was lost in some verbs (see §§ 287 ff.).

Goth. O.E.

Singular. 1 
$$s\delta k \cdot i \cdot da$$
 =  $s\delta h \cdot te$  = sough-t.

2  $s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{c}s$  =  $s\delta h \cdot test$  = sough-t.

Blural. 1  $s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{c}du = s\delta h \cdot te$  = sough-t.

Plural. 1  $s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{c}du = s\delta h \cdot te$  = sough-t.

&c. &c. &c.

302. In the fourteenth century we find the second personlending -e of strong verbs sometimes changed to est, as thou gave and thou gavest (in Wickliffe we find holpedist). The old plural -un, -on, became-en, and the n frequently falls away, so we have held-en and helde, &c. In modern English the older endings have all disappeared.

# 303. PAST SUBJUNCTIVE.

In strong verbs the mood-suffix was  $\underline{e}_i$  as :—

```
Goth.
                         O.E.
                                     Eng.
Singular. I bêr-ja-u
                     = bere
                                  = bore.
                      = bdre
         2 bêr-ei-s
                                  = bore.
                     = bdre
         3 bêri
                                 = bore.
  Plural, i b\hat{c}r-ei-ma = b\hat{c}r-e-n = bore.
            &c.
                          &c.
                                     &c.
```

In some weak verbs the suffix of the verb-stem is lost:—

```
Singular. I s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{e}d \cdot ja \cdot u = s\delta k \cdot te = \text{sough-t.}
2 s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{e}d \cdot ei \cdot s = s\delta k \cdot te = \text{sough-t.}
3 s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{e}d \cdot i = s\delta k \cdot te = \text{sough-t.}
Plural. I s\delta k \cdot i \cdot d\hat{e}d \cdot ei \cdot ma = s\delta k \cdot ten = \text{sough-t.}
```

In Gothic pl. we see, (1)  $s\partial k$  root, (2) i stem-suffix, (3)  $d\partial d$  tense suffix, (4) ja mood suffix, (5) u personal suffix.

304. The IMPERATIVE is properly no mood, but is merely the root + a personal pronoun in the vocative.

In Middle E. the imperative plural ended in -th, as go-eth (= O.E. gá-5), go ye; ber-eth (= ber-a5), bear ye.

## PERSONAL ENDINGS.

- 305. (1) In Teutonic, as in all the Aryan languages, the first person present may end in  $\bar{o}$ , later o, u, a, Old English usually e-e.g. Gothic giba (I give), Old High German gibu, O.E. gife; this ending answers to Greek  $\phi \epsilon \rho \omega$ , Latin fero. But there was another ending, which answered to Greek  $\mu \iota$  in  $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota$ , of which there are remnants in all the Teutonic dialects (confined to the present tense). In O.E. we find eom, eam, am (I am),  $b\acute{e}om$  (I am),  $d\acute{o}m$  (I do).
- (2) The suffix of the second person was originally **s**. In O.E. we sometimes find s for st, as  $\delta ii$  hafes = thou hast, which is the regular inflexion of the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century; but the ordinary person-ending is **st**.

In Modern English the ending is ordinarily *-est*. This termination is subject to certain phonetic and orthographical modifications:—

- (a) After a final e -st is added, as love-st.
- (b) Y (preceded immediately by a consonant) is changed to i before est, as criest.
- (c) In verbs of one syllable with a short vowel, the final consonant is doubled, as beggest, puttest.
- (d) A few instances of the suffix -st after (written) consonants still remain, as canst, dost (as a notional verb more commonly doest).
- (e) The suffix -t, as in Gothic strong preterites (see below), occurs in *shalt* (O.E. *scealt*), which was originally a preterite, and hence by analogy in *wilt* (O.E. *wilt*).

In the strong preterites Gothic and Old Norse have -t, in O.E. we find -e<sup>1</sup> from an older -i, which occurs in Old

<sup>1.</sup> It is omitted in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and four-teenth centuries.

Saxon and Old High German and originally belongs to the subjunctive or rather optative mood. Gothic nam-t (thou tookst), Old High German nâm-î, O.E. nâme; Gothic halp-t (thou helpedest), O.E. hulp-e. We have replaced this by est. (See § 300.)

In weak verbs the ending is -st; but we often find s in O.E. as  $\delta u$  brôhtes,  $\beta u$  sealdes, &c.

(3) The suffix of the third person is in the present tense -th (Aryan -t). This was afterwards supplanted by the northern s. We have two forms; s in common use, th archaic and still used in poetry.

The verbal suffix s is subject to the same euphonic changes as the plural s of substantives.

The original Aryan plural suffixes (1)-mes, (2)-tes, (3)-n-ti are in O.E. reduced to one for all three persons, which has disappeared in Modern English. (See § 297.)

Spenser and Shakespeare have a few examples of the plural -en, 1 as "they marchen" (Spenser, i. 4, 37). Cp.

- "And then the whole quire hold their hips and laugh,
  And waxen in their mirth."—Midsummer Night's Dream, ii. 1.
- "For either they [women] be full of jealousy,
  Or masterfull, or loven novelty."
  BURTON'S Anatomy of Mel. p. 604.

It was archaic in Spenser's time, and is seldom used by Hawes or Sackville.

In O.E. when the pronoun followed the verb the inflexion was dropped, as gd ge, ye go.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;In former times, till about the reign of Henry the Eighth, they (the persons of the plural) were wont to be formed by adding -en, but now, whatsoever the cause, it hath quite grown out of use."—BEN JONSON.

### Infinitive Mood.

- 306. (1) The infinitive is simply an abstract noun. In O.E. the sign of the infinitive was the suffix -an, corresponding to Sanskrit nouns in ana, as gam-ana-m, from gam, to go.
- (2) In Sanskrit the dative and locative singular of similar abstract nouns (as gam-an-âya, dat.; gamanê, loc., were used as infinitives. In Greek we have this suffix in -έναι, -ναι (λελοιπ-έναι, διδό-ναι).
- (3) North of the Humber the n was dropped even in the O.E. period, so that in Middle English we find -e in northern dialects, -en in the south, as breke and breken = to break. But this rule is not rigorously observed.

In Wickliffe the suffix is for the most part e; in Chaucer and *Piers Plowman* we find -en and -e. When this e became silent the infinitive was only distinguished by the preposition to, which is not found before the simple infinitive until about the end of the twelfth century.

- "No devel shall 30w dere."-Pass. vii. 1. 34.
- "Shall no devel at his ded-day deren hym a myste."—Ib. vii. l. 50.
- "To bakbite and to bosten and bere fals witnesse."—Piers Plowman, B. ii, 80.

Spenser and Shakespeare have an archaic use of it, as "to killen" (Pericles).

"Henceforth his ghost...
In peace may passen over Lethe lake."—F. Q. 1. iii. 36.

In Hall's Satires we find "to delven low," p. 51.

- (4) The infinitive had a dative form expressed by the suffix e, and governed by the preposition to.
  - <sup>1</sup> In gam-ana-m the m is merely a neuter suffix.

<sup>2</sup> Cp. for to; the for is, of course, pleonastic, but, no doubt, was used to distinguish it from the simple infin. with to before it.

<sup>3</sup> The *n* is always doubled before the addition of this *e* in the oldest English. In later times *-enne*, *-anne* became *-ene*, then *-en* or *-e*. We have traces of *-ene* as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.

This is sometimes called the *gerundial* infinitive: it is also equivalent to Lat. *supines*; as, *etanne*, to eat; *faranne*, to fare, go.

(5) In the twelfth century we find this ending -enne (-anne), confounded with the participial ending -ende (inde), as:—

"The synfulle [man fasteth] for to clensen him, the rihtwise for to wittende his rihtwisnesse."—O.E. Hom. Second Series, p. 57.

In the fourteenth century, we find "to witinge" = to wit; "to seethinge" = to be sodden (WICKLIFFE, Text A.),2 the participle -ende (-inde) having taken also the form -inge. Cp. "This nyste that is to comyng" (Tale of Beryn, 1. 347).

In the fifteenth and following centuries these forms dropt out of use.

(6) The extract given above shows that the dative infinitive assumed the form of the simple infinitive as early as the twelfth century.

In the *Ormulum* there is only one suffix -en for both infinitives.

We find a trace of this dative infinitive in Sackville-

"The soil, that erst so seemly was to seen,
Was all despoiled of her beauty's hue."—Induction.

"And with a sigh, he ceased To tellen forth the treachery and the trains."—Duke of Buckingham.

307. Because the suffix -ing represents (1) -ung in verbal substantives, as showing (O.E. scéawung); (2) -ende or -inde in present participles, as "he is coming," "he was coming" (O.E. he is cumende, he was cumende), and sometimes represented the dative infinitive -enne (rarely the simple

<sup>1</sup> So in early Middle English occasionally.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cp. "And the dragoun stood before the womman that was to beringe child. And she childede a sone male, that was to reulinge alle folkes."—WICKLIFFE.

infinitive -en); English grammarians have of late years put forth a theory concerning the infinitive, which is neither supported by O.E. usage nor is in accordance with the general direction of changes that have taken place in regard to these suffixes.

(1) It is said that the infinitive in -en has become -ing in such phrases as, "seeing is believing" = to see is to believe. We know, however, (a) that the suffix -en disappeared in the sixteenth and following centuries, and (b) that it rarely in O.E. writers became -inge or -ing.

It is quite evident that although, in sense, seeing and believing are equivalent to infinitives, they are not so in form, but merely represent old English substantives in -ung.

Cp. "The giving a bookseller his price for his book has this advantage."—Selden's Table Talk. "Quoting of authors is most for matter of fact."—Ib.

Such a phrase as "it is hard to heal an old sore" may be converted into "it is hard healing an old sore;" but tracing phrases of this kind only as far back as the sixteenth century, we find that a preposition has disappeared after the verbal substantive, as:—

"It is yll healyng of an olde sore" (HAYWOOD'S Proverbs). "It is evill waking of a sleeping hog" (Ib.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mr. Abbott quotes "Returning were as tedious as (to) go o'er."—Prov. iii. 4. This form is also used as object:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;If all fear'd drowning that spy waves ashore,
Gold would grow rich, and all the merchants poor."
TOURNEUR, The Revenger's Tragedy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the Romance of Partenay, written about the beginning of the sixteenth century, or the latter part of the fifteenth, we find instances of infinitives in -ing for -en after an auxiliary verb (which we never get in modern English), but we can draw no conclusions from the exceptional usage of so late a work:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;Our lorde will receyve hym of hys grace, And off all hys syn yeuyng hym pardon."—(1, 1528).

<sup>&</sup>quot;And [they] shall Enlesing [= lesen] the Rewme and also the land."—(l. 5625).

(2) It is asserted that the O.E. infinitive in -enne actually exists under the form -ing in such expressions as "fit for teaching," "fond of learning," &c.

In these cases we have merely the verbal nouns governed by a preposition doing duty for the old dative infinitive, and altogether replacing it.

We have seen, too, that the old infinitive in -ing, as to witinge, &c. died out about the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century.

(3) These forms in *ing* are no doubt very perplexing, and we find even Max Müller thrown off his guard by them. He says, "The vulgar or dialectic expression 'he is a going' is far more correct than 'he is going." If so, "he was a going," &c. must be more correct than "he was going;" but on turning to similar expressions in O.E. writers we find "he is gangende" and "he was gangende" used to translate Latin present and imperfect tenses; but never "he is on gangung," he is a going.\(^1\) Compare:—

308. In O.E. writers after the Conquest we find the verbal noun with on, an, in,<sup>2</sup> a, employed (1) after verbs of motion, as "he wente on hunting," "he fell on sleeping," &c.

<sup>&</sup>quot;be byef is comynde."—Azenbite, p. 264.

<sup>&</sup>quot;pat Israelisshe folc was walkende."

O.E. Hom. Second Series, p. 51.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the dramatists of a much later period we find it, as—

<sup>&</sup>quot;Your father is a going, good old man."-SHIRLEY'S Brothers.

The a in these expressions was used before verbal substantives beginning with a consonant, and is a shortened form of an which was used before vowels; an is merely a dialectical form of on. (Cp. "Now off, now an."—Wyatt's Poems (ed. Bell, p. 136).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The infinitive sometimes replaces it in Shakespeare, as—

<sup>&</sup>quot;Eleven hours I spent to write it o'er."—Rich. III. iii. 6. Here, "to write" is equivalent to "in writing."

(2) After the verbs is, was, to form present and imperfect tenses, with passive signification, as "the churche was in byldynge" (Robt. of Brunne's Chronicles, i. exevii.), "as this was a doyng" (Morte d'Arthur, lib. 11. c. viii.), "he rode in huntinge" (Gest. Rom.). Ben Jonson retains these expressions, and states that they have the force of gerunds.<sup>1</sup>

Cp. "I saw great peeces of ordinance makyng."

CORYAT'S Crudities.

- "Women are angels, wooing (=in wooing)."—Tr. and Cr. i. 2.
- (3) The verbal substantive with a could be used after the verb be where no time was indicated, as "he is long a rising" = "he is long in rising."

(In earlier English we could substitute an abstract noun with a different suffix, as "he wente forth an hunteth" = he went forth on hunting, or a hunting.)

About the beginning of the eighteenth century we find the a frequently omitted, and it is now only allowed as a colloquialism.

- (4) After verbs of motion the verbal subst. is not only preceded by on, an, a, but by  $to^3$  and of.
- "If two fall to scuffling, one tears the other's band."—Selden's Table Talk.
- "A dog had been at market to buy a shoulder of mutton; coming home he met two dogs by the way that quarrell'd with him; he laid down his shoulder of mutton, and fell to fighting (= a fighting) with one of them; in the meantime the other dog fell to eating (an eating) his mutton; he, seeing that, left the dog he was fighting with, and fell upon him that was eating; then the other dog fell to eat's (=an eating); when he perceived there was no remedy, but which of them soever he

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Marsh's Lectures on the English Language (ed. Smith), pp. 462, 472. In all the instances quoted by Marsh, the subject of the sentence preceding the verbal noun represents an inanimate object.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Old and New Test, in Vernon MS.

<sup>3</sup> Nash (Peter Penniless) has "fall a retayling." In Gammer Gurton's Needle we have "Hodge fell of swearing."

fought withal, his mutton was in danger; he thought he would have as much of it as he could, and, therefore, gave over fighting, and fell to eating himself."—Ib.

- (5) We usually abridge sentences containing the verbal substantive, so that it looks like a gerund, as "For the repealing of my banished brother" can now be expressed by "For repealing my banished brother."
- Cp. "Up peyn of losing of a finger" = upon pain of losing a finger.—Capgrave's Chron. p. 195.

# PRESENT (OR ACTIVE) PARTICIPLE.

309. The present participle is formed by the suffix -ing, which has replaced the O.E. -ende (end); -inde, -ande (and),<sup>2</sup> as O.E.  $g d \cdot n d$ ,  $d o \cdot n d = g o ing$ , doing; Middle English comende, we pinde, rydande, &c.

The suffix -ing arises out of -inde, and took place first in the Southern dialect during the twelfth century, though the older form did not die out until after 1340.

Lazamon has "goinde ne ridinge."

The Northern dialects carefully distinguished (as did the Lowland Scotch dialect up to a very late period) the participle in -and from the noun in -ing (O.E. -ung):

"Than es our birthe here bygynnyng
Of the dede that es our endyng;
For ay the mare that we wax alde
The mare our lif may be ded talde.
Tharfor whylles we er here lyfand
Ilk day er we thos dyhand."—HAMPOLE, P. of C. p. 58.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quoted by Mr. Abbott, from *Jul. Casar*, iii. 1, who says that the expressions common in O.E. began to be regarded as colloquial in Shakespeare's time. Cp. Touchstone's words in *As You Like It*, ii. 4:

<sup>&</sup>quot;I remember the kissing of her battes,

<sup>...</sup> and the wooing of a peas-cod instead of her."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In Middle E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries -inde is found only in the South, and -end in the Midland, and -and in the Northumbrian dialects (and in dialects influenced by the Northumbrian). In the oldest periods of the language -ende is W. Saxon, -and Northumbrian.

Ben Jonson's Sad Shepherd contains some passages written in imitation of the Northern dialect, and in it he makes use of the participle in and. "Twa trilland brooks" (act ii. 2), "a stinkand brock," "pleasand things," "while I sat whyrland of my brazen spindle," "barkand parish tykes," &c.—Ib.

Chaucer rarely uses the participle in and; he has several instances of Norman-French participles, as suffisant, consentant, &c.

Spenser has glitterand, trenchand, but his use of them is archaic.

For Passive Participles, see p. 227, § 279, p. 249, § 293.

### ANOMALOUS VERBS.

310. **Be.**—The conjugation of this verb contains three distinct roots—(1) es, (2) bheu (Latin fio) (3) was.

Present Indicativ	e	Sing.	I am	2 art	3 is	Pl.	I	2 are	3
Subjunctive		Sing.	be	be	be	Pl.		be	
Past Indicative	1			( 02.,	was			were	
Subjunctive		Sing.	were	were	were	Pl.		were	
Infinitive. be	Imp	erativ	c.	Pres. be	Part ing	.	Pass	sive Pa been	rt.
Pres. Indic. Sin	ig. 1 2 3	Goth. i-m i-s is-t		eo-m eam ear-t is*		béo-m, bi-st, b bið, be	éost	అ	
Pl.	I	sij-u-ı	m	ar-on M.E. a		béo,ð, (M.E.	sind sind	l, synd en, sund	don, den)
	2	sij-u-t	h	ar-on M.E. a		béo∙ð, s	sind (	( <b>synd</b> on	1)
	3	si-nd		ar-on M.E. ai	1	béoð, si	nd (s	syndon)	١

		Goth.	. O.E	
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	1 si-ja-u 2 sij-ai-s 3 sij-ai	si sí sí	béo béo béo
	Pl.	r sij-ai-ma 2 sij-ai-þ 3 sij-ai-na	sí-n sí-n sín	béo-n béo-n béo-n
Past Indic.	Sing.	I was 2 was-t 3 was	wæs wær-e wæs	
	Pl.	ı wês-um 2 wês-uth 3 wês-un	wær-on wær-on wær-on	
Past Subj.	Sing.	ı wês-ja-u 2 wês-ei-s 3 wês-i	wær-e wær-e wær-e	
	Pl.	1 wês-ei-ma 2 wês-ei-þ 3 wês-ei-na	wár-e-n wár-e-n wár-e-n	
Imperative	Sing.	2	wes	béo, seo, si
	Pl.	2 wis-i-þ	wesaþ	béo <b>ő</b>
Infinitive Pres. Part.		wis-a-n wisands	wesan wesende	béon
Past Part.		wisans	gewesen	(M.E. yben)

311. Am = 0.E. eam = eom.

Ar-t = O.E. eart, cognate with Lituanian yrd, 'is.

Is.—The root es is here weakened to is, and the suffix th or t is dropped (cp. Goth is-t).

Are represents the old northern English aron, 1 arn, er.

The O.E. s-ind = Sansk., santi (= as-santi); sindon is a double plural, sunden occurs as late as 1250: sinden is in the Ormulum.

The root **be** was conjugated in the present tense, singular and plural, indicative, as late as Milton's time.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ar-on is not found in the old English West-Saxon dialect.

Lbe. We be, Middle E., ben. Thou beest. Ye be. Middle E. (He beth or bes.) They be,

The first person is found in the English Bible. Compare:—

- "If thou beest Stephano, touch me."-Tempest, ii. 2.
- "If thou beest he."-MILTON, Paradise Lost, i. 81.

The third person beth and bes were in use in the fourteenth century; the latter with a future signification.

The pl. is very common, as:—

- "We be twelve brethren."-Gen. xlii. 32.
- "There be more marvels yet."-BYRON, Childe Harold.
- "As fresh as bin the flowers in May."—PEELE.

Bin = be with n as plural suffix.

In the present subjunctive, only the root be is employed, and all the inflexions are lost.

- 312. Was.—The O.E. wesan, to be, is cognate with Goth. wisan; O.N. vera, to be, abide; Sansk. vas, to dwell.
- Was-t.—We have seen that all strong verbs in the oldest English had the suffix e for the second person singular of the preterite. In the Gothic was-t we have an older suffix, t (suffix of second person, as in ar-t), nearly lost in O.E.

But wast is not found in the oldest English; it is quite a late form, not older than the fourteenth century. The O.E. form was wære (with change of s into r),2 from which we have formed, after the analogy of shall and will, wer-t,3 which is sometimes, but wrongly, used for the subjunctive

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It occurs in Wickliffe (Mark xiv. 67).

<sup>2 &</sup>quot;Litel thou were tempted, or litel thou were stired."-Pilgrimage, p. 33. The O. Norse = var-t.

were (second person singular), as "thou wert grim" (King John, ii. 3).

Were = O.E. wdron, where r is for original s.

313. In Middle E. we have negative forms, as nam, I am not; nart, thou art not; nis, he is not; nere, were not, &c. Worth = O.E. weorpan, Latin verti = to become, to be.

"Wo worth the day" = "wo be the day."-Ezek. xxx. 2.

"Wo worth the faire gemme vertuelesse!
Wo worth that herb also that doth no boote!
Wo worth that beauté that is routheless!
Wo worth that wyght that tret ech under foote."
CHAUCER, Tröylus and Cryscyde, ii. ll. 344-7.

314. Many verbs in Teutonic and other languages, having lost their present tense, express the meaning of the lost tense by means of the preterite, as Lat. odi, capi, memini, Gr. otoa. Compare Mod. E. "I have got" = I have. The verbs can, dare, shall, may, owe, must, and wit, are of this class; hence in O.E. (and partly in Modern E.) their present tense is conjugated like the preterite of strong verbs, while they have formed new preterites according to the weak conjugation.

# 315. Can.

,		_	•	2	ı	, ,	,
Present Indicative .  Subjunctive  Past Indicative  Subjunctive	Sing.	can	cans	t can	Pl.	can	3
Subjunctive	Sing.				Pl.	-	
Past Indicative	Sing.	could	could	st could	Pl.	could	
Subjunctive	Sing.		****		Pl.	<del></del>	
				Goth.		O.E.	
Present Indicative	•••	Sing.	I	kann kant		can, con	
			3	kann		can, con	
		Pl.	I	kđnnum		cunnon	

Present Subjunctive	•••	Sing. Pl.		Goth. kunjau kuneima	O.E. cunne cunnon
Past Indicative		Sing.	1 2 3	kun-þa kun-þes kun-þa	ငယ်-ဗီဇ ငယ်ဗီဇst ငယ်ဗီဇ
		P1.	1	kun-þêdum	cúðon
Past Subjunctive		Sing. Pl.		kunþêdjau kun-þêdeima	cúðe cúðon
Past Participle				kunþs	cúð
Infinitive				kunnan	cunnan

**Can** (first and third persons).—No personal suffixes, as in the preterite of all verbs originally strong.

Can-st stands for can-t.

The plural inflexions (cp. O.E. cunnon, cunnen) have disappeared.

**Could.**—The Middle E. forms *couthe*, *coude*, show that a non-radical *l* has crept in, probably from false analogy with *shall* and *will*.

Middle E. Coude = Goth. cun-ba (= cun-da), has the tense suffix d of weak verbs.

We have the old past participle of the verb in un-couth (O.E. un-cú $\delta$  = unknown).

In Chaucer we find infinitive conne, to be able, as "I shal not conne answere." Shakespeare has, "to con thanks." "He shulde can us no thank."—Berner's Froissart.

Con = learn, study (as con a lesson), makes past tense and passive participle conned.

**Cunning** = knowing, is really a present participle of can (con).

## 316. Dare.

Present Indicative	Sing.	I 2 lare dares	t dare(s)	1 2 3
Subjunctive	Sing. d	lare dare	dare F	l. dare
Past Indicative	Sing. c	lurst durst	durst   F	l. durst
Subjunctive	Sing. d	lurst durst	durst   F	l. durst
Infinitive. In	mperative dare	e.   Pre	s. Part. laring	Past Part. dared
		Goth.	O	E.
Present Indicative	Sing. 1 2 3	dars dart dars	dear dearst dear	(dar)¹ (darst) (dar)
	Pl.	daurs-um	durron	(durren, durre)
Present Subjunctive	Sing. 1	Warning	durre	
	Sing. 1 2 3	daursta daurstes daursta	dorste	t (durstest) (durste)
	Pl. 1	daurstêdur	n dorsten	(dursten)
-	Sing. Pl.		dorste dorsten	(durste) (dursten, durste)
Infinitive		daursan	durran	(dore)

Dare.—The root is dars (cp. Gr. θαρρείν, θαρσείν).

The third person dare (O.E. dear) is strictly correct, but is now used only when followed by an infinitive without to. Cp.:—

"A bard to sing of deeds he dare not imitate."

WALTER SCOTT, Waverley.

In the Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Man we find p.p. dorre:-

"Whi art thou swich and swich that thou darst passe the lawe... whens cometh it thee and how hast thou dorre be so harde."—P. 78.

Wickliffe has infinitive dore:

"be which ping pat I shulde dore dou me styride be studie of Orygen."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Forms in parentheses are Middle English.

**Dare** makes a new preterite, *dared*, when it signifies to challenge, as "he *dared* me to do it."

The preterite *durst* is often used colloquially (like *ought*) in present sense (here representing the original subjunctive): "I durst not do it" = I should not dare to do it, I dare not do it.

# 317. Shall.

Present Ind	icative	Sing.	ı shall	2 shalt	3 shall	Pl.	I	2 shall	3
Subjunctive		Sing.				Pl.			
Past Indicat	ive	Sing.	should s	houldst	should	Pl.		should	
Subjunctive		Sing.	* 1000			Pl.		**	
		Gotl	n.		O.E.			Middle	E.
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	ı skal 2 skal- 3 skal	t	sceal scealt sceal	9	cal <sup>1</sup> scalt scal		schal schalt schal	
	Pl.	ı skulu	m	scul-o	n s	culon	ì	schule	en
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	skulj	au	scyle	5	cule		schul	e
_	Pl.	skule	ima	scylen		culen		schul	en
Past Indic.	Sing.	1 skuld 2 skuld 3 skuld skuld	les	sceold sceold sceold	est s	colde coldes colde colde		schule schule schule schule	lest le
Past Subj.	Sing.	skuld	lêdjau	sceole	le s	colde	:	schule	le
	Pl.	skuld	lêdeima	sceole	lon s	colde	n	schule	ien
Infinitive		skula	n	scular	1				
Past Part.		skuld	ls						

**Shall** often occurs in Middle English in the sense of 10 owe, as—

"Frend, as I am trewe knyght,
And by hat feih I shal to God and yow,
I hadde it nevere half so hoote as now."

CHAUCER, Tr. and Cr. 1. 1600.

The second column of O.E. contains later forms

<sup>&</sup>quot; bise dette ssel (owes) ech to obren."—Azenbite, p. 145.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Hú micel sceal dú?" = How much owest thou?-Luke xvi. 5.

## 318. May.

Present Ind	icative	Sing. may	2 3 mayst m	ay Pl.	2 3
Past Indicat		Sing. might	mightst mig mightest		might
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	Goth.  1 mag 2 mag-t 3 mag	O.E. I mæg meaht mæg	MiddleE. mæi miht mæi	mow maist
	Pl.	I magum	magon	magen	mughen mawen mowen
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	I magjau	mage (muge)	mæi	mughe mowe
	P1.	r mageima	magen (mugen)	mægen	mughen mowe
Past Indie.	Sing. Pl.	ı mahta ı mahtêdum	meahte meahton	mihte mihten	moughte mighten
Past Subj.	Sing. Pl.	1 mahtêdjau 1 mahtêdeima	meahte meahten	mihte mihten	mighte mighten
Infinitive		magan	magan (mugan)	mowen	mowe
Pres. Part.			mægende	mowend mi3tand	mowing

**May** (first person).—The y here represents an older g.

**Might.**—The second person singular, we see, had originally the suffix t, like shalt, wilt, &c.

In the fourteenth century we find this suffix dropping off, as "No thing thou may take from us" (Maundeville, p. 29). Skelton, too, uses this uninflected form, as "thou may see thyself" (i. 145).

In Middle English fourteenth century we find inf. mowe, pres. part. mowende, mowinge (WICKLIFFE, Jer. xlvi. 10), p.p. might, mogt:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;Amende bee while thow myght."-Piers Plowman.

- "Who shall mowe figte."-WICKLIFFE, Apoc. xiii. 4.
- "This con I wot well, me not to have most remene."—Job, Prol. p. 671.
- " If goodly had he might."-CHAUCER.

# 319. Owe.

Present Ind	icative	Sing.	owe	2 owest —	3 oweth	Pl.	I	2 owe	3
Subjunctive		Sing.		-		Pl.			
Past Indicat	ive	Sing.	ought	oughtest	ought	Pl.	o	ught	
Subjunctive		Sing.		_				_	
Infinit owe		1		t Particip owing	le.		Perf	ect.	
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	Goth. I aih 2 aih-t 3 aih I aigun		O.E. áh áge áh ágon	Mi og agest ouh agen	01		owe	est
Past Indic.	Sing. Pl.	ı aihta ı aihtê		áhte áhton	a3te a3ten		w3te w3ten		
Infinitive		aigan		ágan	a3en	οg	gen	owe	n
Pres. Part.				ágende					
Pass. Part.		aihts		ágen	a3t	οι	ight	owe	d

- (1) **Owe** (Goth. ath, O.E. ah, I have) no longer exists in the sense of have, possess.
  - (2) Owe as an independent verb:-

Cp. Hwat dó ic þat ic èce lif age l = what must I do that I may have eternal life?—Mark x. 17.

- "And all pat iss, and beop, He shop and ah."—Orm. 6777.
- "God ah (= owes) the littell mede."—Ib.
- "By the treupe ich ou to be."-ROBT. OF GLOUCESTER, 6524.
- "He owste to him 10,000 talentes."-WICKLIFFE, Matt. xviii. 24.

- " 3eld þat þou owist."—Ib. xvjii. 28.
- "You ought him a thousand pounds."-SHAKESPEARE.
- "The knight, the which that castle aught."

  SPENSER, F. Queene, VI. iii. 2.
- (3) As an auxiliary, it first appears in Lazamon's Brut, "he ah to don" = he has to do, he must do.
  - "I owe for to be cristned."-WICKLIFFE, Matt. iii. 14.
  - "And gladder oughte his freend ben of his deb Whan with honour up yolden in his breb." CHAUCER, Knightes Tale.
  - (4) It occurs impersonally with datives, as-
    - "Wel ought us werche."-CHAUCER.
- (5) **Owe** as a weak verb, signifying to be in debt, is conjugated regularly; present (1) owe, (2) owest, (3) owes (oweth); past (1) owed, (2) owedst, (3) owed.
- (6) **Ought**, properly a past tense subjunctive (= would owe), is now used as a present, to signify moral obligation.
- (7) Own, to possess, has arisen out of the derivative O.E. verb ág-nian, to possess. Shakespeare uses owe for own.

## 320. Must.

Present Indicative	Sing.	<u> </u>	2	3	Pl.	1	2	3
Subjunctive	Sing.	Name and Address of the Owner, where the Owner, which is the Owner, where the Owner, which is the Ow			P1.			
Past Indicative	Sing.	must	must	must	Pl.	1	nust	
Subjunctive	Sing.				Pl.			
Present Indic. S	ing. 1 : 2 :	Goth., môt nôst		O.E. mót mós-t		mo	te	
Past Indic. Si	l. II	mô <b>t</b> nôtum nôsta nôtêdun	1	mó-t móton móste móston	ı	mo mo mo	ten	
							æ	

(1) The verb **mót** in Old English denoted permission, possibility, and obligation (= may, can, &c.).

Spenser uses the old verb mote, as-

- "Fraclissa was as faire, as faire mote bee."
- (2) **Must** has now the force of a present as well as of a past tense, and denotes necessity and obligation. Chaucer uses *moste* as a present tense.

321.	Wit.
------	------

Present Indicative	Sing.	ı wot	2	3 wot	Pl.	I 2 wot	3
Subjunctive	Sing.				Pl.		
Past Indicative	Sing.	wist		wist	Ы.	wist	
Subjunctive	Sing.				P1.		
Infinitive. wit	P	resent I witt		ole.	Pa	st Particip wist	le.
Present Indic.	Sing.	Goth. ng. 1 wait 2 waist 3 wait		O. E. wát wást wát		Middle E. wot wost wot	
I	1.	I witun	1	wite	on	witen	

wissa

witan

wissêdum

Infinitive

Sing.

Past Indic.

· Present Part.

Pass. Part.

witan witende

witen

wiste

wiston

iwist, wist

wuste

wusten

The original signification of Goth. wait, O.E. wát, is "I have seen" (cp. Gr. oloa), hence I know, from the root wit or vid, to see.

- (1) Shakespeare has I wot, he wot, you wot, they wot.
- (2) The old second person singular has given way to wottest; and wotteth or wots is sometimes found for wot.

(3) Wist, the true past tense of wit, occurs frequently in the English Bible; but Sackville used wotted, as—

"I, which wotted best His wretched drifts."—Duke of Buckingham.

- (4) **Unwist** = unknown, undiscovered:
  - "Couldst thou hope, unwist, to leave my land?"
    SURREY, Aneid iv.
- (5) Wotting = O.E. witende (witing), occurs in the Winter's Tale (ed. Collier), iii. 2. Cp. unwitting, unwittingly.
- (6) **To wit,** a gerundial infinitive, is used as an adverb = namely.

To weet, a causative of wit = to learn, as—

- "Then we in doubt to Phoebus' temple sent Euripilus to weet the prophesy."—SURREY, Æneid ii.
- (7) Must and wist have an s, which is not found in the roots mot and wit.

The past tenses are formed by adding to the root t, as motte, witte; but, by a common law in the Teutonic dialects, the first t is changed to s: hence moste, wiste.

322. Will. This verb resembles those treated in §§ 314-321 in having no personal suffix in the third person singpresent indicative. But it differs from them in its history; the present indicative was originally not a preterite but a subjunctive. Hence the endings of the singular in O.E.; but the plural willad has the ordinary ending of the present indicative.

Present Indicative	Sing.	r will	wilt	3 will	Pl.	I	2 will	3
Subjunctive	Sing.	-			Pl.			
	Sing.	would	wouldst	would	Pl.		would	
Subjunctive	Sing.			_	Pl.		******	

Pres. Indic.	Sing.	O.E.  I wile wilt wile wile wile	Mide wille wult wille wulleth	lle E.  wolle, wole, wol wolt wulle, wole, wol wolleth, wolen, wilen
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	1 wille	wolle	wulle
Past Indic.	Sing. Pl.	ı wolde ı wolden	wolde wolden	
Past Subj.	Sing.	wolde		
Infinitive		willan	wilen	wolen
Pres. Part.		willende		

- (1) In won't we have a trace of the Middle English wol (wole).
- (2) In Middle English we find infinitive wolen, as "he shall wolen" (Wickliffe, Apoc. xi. 6); p.p. wold-
  - "And in be same maner oure Lord Crist hab wolde and suffred."

    CHAUCER, Melibeus, p. 159 (Wright).
- (3) Negative forms occur in O.E., as nille = will not; nolde = would not; willy nilly = will ye, nill ye, will he, nill he. "Will you, nill you" (Taming of the Shrew, ii. 1).

"To will or nill."-BEN JONSON, Catiline.

Cp. Middle E. "For wolny, nulni, hi sul fle," &c.— Early Eng. Poems, p. 12.

Wolny = wolen hi, will they; nulni = nolen hi, nill they.

- (4) In O.E. we find two weak verbs, willian and wilnian, to desire; the former of these exists in will = to desire.
  - "And Venus in her message Hermes sped
    To blody Mars to will him not to rise."—SACKVILLE, Induction.
  - "For what wot I the after weal that fortune wills to me."
    SURREY, Faithful Lover.
  - "Which mass he willed to be reared high. -Ib., Eneid.

323. The verb need, though of the regular weak conjugation, sometimes in Modern English drops the final s of the third person sing. of the present indicative. This is due to the analogy of can, dare, shall, will, &c., and only takes place when to is omitted before a following infinitive, as 'He need not do it.'

# 324. Tenses formed by Composition.

(1) Tenses are formed, not only by suffixes added to the verbal root, but by using auxiliary verbs along with the participles or infinitive mood. This is called the analytical mode of expressing time. The perfect tense is denoted by have and is; the future by shall and will.

"The primary meaning of the word have is 'possession.' It is easy to see how 'I have my arms stretched out' might pass into 'I have stretched out my arms,' or how, in such phrases as 'he has put on his coat,' 'we have eaten our breakfast,' 'they have finished their work,' a declaration of possession of the object in the condition denoted by the participle should come to be accepted as sufficiently expressing the completed act of putting it into that condition; the present possessive, in fact, implies the past action, and if our use of have were limited to the cases in which such an implication was apparent, the expressions in which we used it would be phrases only. When, however, we extend the implication of past action to every variety of cases, as in 'I have discharged my servant, 'he has lost his breakfast,' we have exposed their errors; when there is no idea of possession for it to grow out of; or with neuter verbs, 'You have been in error,' 'he has come from London,' 'they have gone away;' where there is even no object for the have to govern; where condition and not action is expressed; and 'you are been,' 'he is come,' 'they are gone,' would be theoretically more correct (as they are alone proper in German):—then we have converted have from an independent part of speech into a fairly formative element."-WHITNEY.

(2) In Middle English writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries have was weakened to ha, and in the sixteenth century we find it coalescing with the passive participle.

<sup>&</sup>quot;The Jewes wolden ha broken his bones."

Legends of Holy Rood, p. 139, l. 237.

- "Therefore ech man ha this in memorye."

  LYDGATE, Arund, MS. fol. 376.
- "I ha thereto plesaunce."—Ib. fol. 27.
- "I knowlech to a felid."—WICKLIFFE, Apol. for the Lollards, p. L.
- "It shuld a fallen on a bassenet or a helme."—FROISSART, I. ch. ii. 25.
- "Richard might . . . asaucd hymself if he would a fled awaie."— Life of Richard III. in Hardyng, p. 547, reprint of 1812.<sup>2</sup>
- (3) Do and did are used for forming emphatic tenses, as "I do love," "I did love."

This idiom did not make its appearance till about the thirteenth century, and did not come into general use before the fifteenth century.

"In vuele tyme . . . reste thou dust chese (in evil time didst thou choose rest)."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 8809.

In Middle English do = to make, cause, as --

"And if I do pat lak,

Dop strepe me, and put me in a sak

And in he next ryver do me drenche."

CHAUCER, C. Tales.

It was also used as at present, to save the repetition of the principal verb, as—-

- "I love you more than you do me."
  SHAKESPEARE, King John, iv. 1.
- "He slep no more pan dop the nightingale."

  CHAUCER.
- (4) In Middle English gan, can, was used as a tense auxiliary = did.

But the details of this usage must be sought in the syntax of auxiliary verbs. (See *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, §§ 352-354.)

<sup>1</sup> Quoted by Marsh.

### CHAPTER XV

#### ADVERBS

325. Adverses are mostly either abbreviations of words (or phrases, as *likewise = in like wise*) belonging to other parts of speech, or particular cases of nouns and pronouns.

They modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and may be classified according to their meaning into adverbs of—

- (1) PLACE, answering to the question (a) WHERE? (b) WHITHER? (c) WHENCE? as (a) here, there, anywhere, elsewhere, somewhere, nowhere, yonder, below, before, behind, within, without; (b) hither, thither, hitherwards, backwards, from below, from above; (c) hence, thence.
- (2) Time, answering to the question when? (a) PRESENT, as now, to day, at present, forthwith, &c.; (b) past, as yesterday, lately, forwards, of yore; (c) future, as to-morrow, soon, by and by; (d) duration of time (how long), as long time, still, ever, &c.; (e) repetition (how often), as again, once, seldom, oft, daily; (f) relative to some other time (how soon), as then, after, forthwith, first, last.
- (3) MANNER or QUALITY, as (a) well, wisely, slowly, quickly—some of these are interrogative, demonstrative, or indefinite, as how, so, thus, nohow, &c.; (b) affirmation, as yes, yea, truly, indeed, &c.; (c) negation, as not, nay; (d) doubt, uncertainty, as likely, perhaps.

- (4) MEASURE, QUANTITY, DEGREE, as much, little, enough, half, much, scarce, far, very, exceedingly.
  - (5) Cause, instrumentality, as why, wherefore, whence.
- 326. According to their origin, or form, adverbs are divided into the following classes:—

## I. Substantive Adverbs.

- I. With case-endings:
- (1) GENITIVE SINGULAR, need-s, Middle E. needes, "he must needs (of necessity) die."
- In O. and M.E. we find the genitive used adverbially, as:—
  - "Fure, be never ne abcostrede, winteres ne summeres."-Laz. 2861.
  - "Heo wolden feden pone king, dwies and nihtes."—Ib. 3255.

"Ich not to hwan þu bredst þi brod

Lives ne deaþes ne deþ hit god."

Owl and Nightingale, 1. 1634.

Cp. Middle E. willes, willingly; sopes, of a truth; his ponkes = of his own accord, &c.

The termination has disappeared in many of the older words, as day and night, summer and winter. Cp.:—

"We shul be redy to stonde wip you, lyfe and depe."—Gest. Rom. p. 37.

The preposition of has taken the place of the genitive suffix, as of necessity, of course, of force, of purpose, of right, of a truth, of a day. We actually find in the sixteenth century "of a late dayes," as well as "of late days."

Sometimes we have of (or in, at, a, on) with the old genitive, as anights, of mornings, a mornings, on Sundays, now-a-days = Middle E. now-on-dayes, in-a-doors, &c.

There were some adverbs in O.E., ending in -inga, -unga, -linga, -lunga. A few of these exist under the form -ling or -long, as head-long (Middle E. heedlinge), sideling, sidelong, dark-ling (darklong), flatling and flatlong.

In the fourteenth century we find these with the genitive form, as allynges (wholly), heedlynges, flatlynges, noselynges.

The Scotch dialect has preserved the old suffix -linges under the form lins, as darklins (in the dark).

The word grovelling was originally an adverb; cp. Scotch groflins, Middle E. gruflynges, groflinges.

We find -gates = -ways in Middle E., as thus-gate = thusise, allegates = always.

- (2) Dative and Instrumental, ever (O.E. áfre), never (O.E. náfre), whilom (O.E. hwíl-um), limb-meal (O.E. lim-mál-um), piece-meal.
- (3) ACCUSATIVE, ay (from O.N. ei = O.E. á, Goth. aiw accusative of aiws age), the while (O.E. þá hwile), somewhile (sumehwile), some deal (sumne dæl), alway (O.E. ealne weg), otherwise (ódre wisan); cp. nowise, noway, sometime.

In such phrases as "He went home," "They wandered north and south," "I saw him yesterday," "They cry day and night unto him," "Can ye aught tell?" the words home, north, south, yesterday, &c. are adverbial accusatives.

Many of the old accusatives now have a genitive form, as otherway-s, always, longways, straightways, another-gates (cp. Middle E. algates = always, thusgates, &c.), sideways, sometimes, otherwhiles, somewhiles, the whilst. In the Ayen-bite and in Piers Plowman we find perhuile, perhuyl, perhuyls.

II. PREPOSITIONAL: a-way (O.E. on wæg), a-back (O.E. on-bæc), a-gain (O.E. on-géan), a-day (on-dæge), to-day (O.E. tó-dæge), to-night (O.E. tó-nihte), a niht (on niht), to-morn,

to-morrow (O.E. tó-mergen), Middle E. to-yere (this year), to-eve (yesterday evening), to-whiles = meanwhile, adown (O.E. á-dúne, for of-dúne, from a hill).

Cp. abed, afoot, asleep (on sleep), alive (on life), ahead, on head, on-brood, a-broach, ashore, arow, aloft, apart, among, across, aside, a height, an end, a-front, a-door, besides (Middle E. besides, besiden), of kin (akin), of kind (naturally), of burpose, because, by chance, perhaps, perchance, perforce.

In Middle E. we find asidis, on sidis hand = aside, apart; by northe, by southe, by pecemeale, by cas (by chance).

Other but more recent adverbial forms of this nature are—by no means, by any means, beforehand, at hand, in front, at night, at times, at length, at at-gaze (agaze), by degrees, upstairs, indoors, in fact, in deed.

The preposition is sometimes omitted, as "they went back" (= aback), "this stick was broke cross" (= across).

In most English grammars that I have seen a in a-year, a-day = yearly, daily, is treated as the indefinite article used distributively.

A reference to older writers at once shows that this treatment is wholly incorrect.

"brywa on geare" = thrice a year."-Exod. xxiii. 17.

"An halpenny on day" = a halfpenny a day.—Boke of Curtasye, 1. 616.

In some few words of French origin we have substituted a or on for Fr. en or a, especially in older writers; around, Middle E. on rounde, O.F. en rond. Cp. a fine and in fine, a stray, on stray, &c.

In Middle E. we find in for a before words of French origin, as—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Earle's Cosmog. (ed. Arber) we find at the length, at bedsides (p. 24), in summe (p. 33).

"bet corn a gerse, the vines in flouring" = the corn in grass, the vine in flowering.—Ayenbite, p. 36.

In a-feared, a-feard, an hungered, an hungry, Middle E. a fingered, a dread, the prefix a is a corruption of the O.E. of, an intensitive prefix, sometimes equivalent to for in forswear. In Middle E. we find a thirst, on thirst, and of thirst.

A is also a weakened form of the preposition of or o. "A dozen a beer" (S. Rowland's Diogenes), "God a mercy" "man-a-war." <sup>2</sup>

In Middle English ane occurs for an (= on), probably from the analogy of ine, inne, O.E. innan, within.

"bin holy blod bet bou seedest ane the rod."-Ayenbite, p. 1.

Cp. "Body o me," "two a clock," and "two o clock."

## II. Adjectival Adverbs.

(1) In O.E. many adverbs are formed from adjectives by means of the suffix -e. Thus an adjective in -lic=like was converted into an adverb by this means, as biterlic (adjective), biterlice (adverb), bitterly.

The loss of the adverbial e reduced the adverb to the same form as the adjective: hence O.E. faste, faste, became fast; faire, fair, &c.; he smot him harde = he smote him hard

Cp. to work hard, to sleep sound, to speak fair.

In Elizabethan writers we find the adverbial -ly often omitted, as "grievous sick," "miserable poor."

(2) Many adjective forms, especially those of irregular comparison, as well, much, little, &c., are used as adverbs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. "Innes a Court men" (Earle's Cosmog. ed. Arber, p. 41).

<sup>2</sup> The a = an has the same meaning as on; but an was used before consonants, a before vowels. Cp. anon, anende.

- (3) GENITIVE FORMS, as else (O.E. elles), backwards, forwards, upwards, eftsoons, uneathes, unawares.
- (4) Accusative, ere (O.E. ér), enough (O.E. genoh), backward, homeward.
- (5) Dative, seldom: cp. O.E. miclum, greatly; lýtlum and lýtlum = paulatim.<sup>1</sup>
  - "Lere him litlum and lytlum."-Piers Plowman, B. p. 286.
- "Hé gewýt swá lýtlum and lýtlum fram Gode" (so little by little he departs from God).—Aelfric, Grammar, Preface.

In later times the inflexion dropped, and we often find the prepositional construction instead, as by little and little. Cp.:—

- "So did the waxen image (lo) by smale and smale decrease."

  DRANT'S Horace, Sat. ii. 2.
- "They love the mullet greate,
  And yet do mynce her smale and smale."—Ib.
- "My rentes come to me thicke and thicke."-Ib. ii. 3.
- (6) Forms with suffix -a: yore, (O.E. géara), yet (O.E. geta), soon (O.E. sóna).
- (7) PREPOSITIONAL FORMS, amidst<sup>2</sup> (O.E. on-middum, Middle E. amidde, a-middes), towards (O.E. tó-weardes), together (O.E. tó-gæder), afar, anew, alate, aright, abroad, afar, aloud, along, agood, a-cold, alast, anon, at large, a-high, on high, in vain (O.E. on idel), in general, in short,<sup>3</sup> at the full, to right, on a sudden, at unawares (at unaware occurs in Drant's Horace), at all (O.E. ealles), withal, of yore, of new, of late, of right [Middle E. of fresh, of neere, in open (= openly), in playne (= plainly)].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sometimes in Middle, E. we find -en for -um, as whilen, selden.
<sup>2</sup> The t in such words as unidst, amongst, is merely euphonic: cp.

O.E. alongst (= along), onest (= once).

\* In few also occurs in Elizabethan literature: cp. in brief, &c.

Prepositions sometimes accompany the comparative and superlative, as for the worse, &c.; at last, Middle E. atte laste = at the last; atte wyrst, at the worst, &c.: cp. Middle E. atte beste, at the best; at least, &c.

#### III. Numeral Adverbs.

Once, O.E. &ne, Middle E. ene, anes, enes, ans; Twice, O.E. twi-wa, Middle E. twiwe, twien, twie, twies, twis; Thrice, O.E. dri-wa, Middle E. priwe, prie, thries, thrys.

The -ce = -s = -es. In betwixt (= O.E. between the last letter is not radical: cp. amidst.

An on (= in one instant), at one, at once, atwain, atwo, in twain, Middle E. a twinne, a thre, &c. for the nonce.

#### IV. Adverbs formed from Particles.

#### A.—PREPOSITIONAL ADVERBS.

- (1) Aft (O.E.  $\alpha ft$ , eft), after (O.E.  $\alpha f$ -ter), afterwards &c.; abaft = a + be + aft (O.E. be- $\alpha ftan$ ).
  - (2) By (O.E. (bi, big), for-by, by and by.
- (3) For, as in be-fore (O.E. beforan), for-th, forthwith, afore, aforehand, beforehand.
- (4) **Hind**, as in behind (O.E. behindan), behindhand; O.E. hindan, hindweard.
- (5) In, as in within [O.E. innan, binnan (= be-innan) withannan, withinnen], Middle E. inwib.

<sup>1</sup> Cp. Middle E. for then ares or for then ares, where the n originally belonged to the demonstrative; cp. the oldest English for 86m anum.

- (6) Neath, as in be-neath, underneath O.E. neodan, be-nydan, underneodan, nidor, nider, down).
  - (7) On, onward.
  - (8) Of (O.E. of = from, off), off.
  - (9) To, too.
- (10) **Through** (O.E. *durh*; later forms, thurf, thurch, thuruh, thorgh), thorough, throughly, thoroughly.
  - (11) Under, underfoot, underhand.
  - (12) Up, upper, uppermost, upward.
- (13) From the old form ufan (ufon) we get above (= O.E. á-bufan, abuven), over (= O.E. ofer); cp. O.E. be-ufan, bufan, widufan, onufan = above; ufanweard, upwards; ufanan, from above.<sup>1</sup>
- (14) Out, about (O.E. út, úte, útan, b-útan, ymb-útan), without (Middle E. wibutan, wibouten), abouts, thereabouts.

In Middle E. we have inunb, outwib.

<sup>1</sup> Later forms are buven, ovenan, bibufen.

### B.—PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

## Table of Adverbs connected with the Stems he, the, who.

PRONOMINAL STEMS.	PLACE WHERE.	MOTION TO.	MOTION FROM.	TIME WHEN	MANNER.	CAUSE.
who	where	whither	whence	when	how	why
the	there	thither	thence	then	thus	the
he	here	hither	hence			

(1) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative the:—

There (O.E.  $\delta \acute{a}r$ ,  $\delta \acute{a}r$ ), originally locative.

Thither (O.E. Sider) contains the locative suffix -ther, corresponding to O.N. papra, Sansk. ta-tra; thitherward (O.E. Siderweard, Siderweardes). For Mod. E. th instead of Old E. d see p. 101.

Then (O.E. Sanne, Sonne, Senne), accusative singular.<sup>1</sup> It is the same word as the conjunction than.

We find in O.E.  $\delta a$ , Middle E. po = then, thence;  $n\dot{u} \delta a$ , Middle E. nouthe = now then.

Thence (O.E.  $\delta$ an-an,  $\delta$ an-on,  $\delta$ onon,  $\delta$ ananne; later forms, thanene, thannene, thenne-s, then-s) has two suffixes: (1) n, originally perhaps the locative of the demonstrative stem na (existing in adjectives in -en, and in passive participles); and (2) the genitive -ce = -es, which came in about the thirteenth century.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. Latin tu-m, tun-c, ta-m, tandem, ta-men, tantus, tot, &c., all containing the demonstrative stem ta, cognate with English the.

In Middle English northern writers we find thethen = O.N. baban = thence; old Scotch writers have thyne.

In Latin we find suffix -n in superne, from above. In O.E. we have *éast-an*, from the east; west-an, from the west, &c.; hind-an, from behind.

The (O.E.  $\delta i$ ) before comparatives is an adverb, and is the instrumental case of the definite article the: the more, O.E.  $\delta i$  máre = eo magis.

In Middle English we have for-thi or for-thy = therefore, as-

"Forthy appease your griefe and heavie plight."

SPENSER, F. Q. II. i. 14.

Thus (O.E. dus).

Lest = O.E.  $\delta i$  less (or  $\delta e$  less) +  $\delta e$  (indeclinable relative), which, by omission of thy, became weakened to lesse, leste.

(2) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative stem he (hi):—

Here (O.E. hér).

Hither (O.E. hider). See remarks on whither.

Hence (O.E. hinan, heonan, heonane, heona; later forms, hennene, hennes hennes hens).

In Middle English northern writers we find hepen = O.N. hepan.

(3) Adverbs from the interrogative stem who:-

Where (O.E. hwer, hwar). See remarks on there.

Whither (O.E. hwæ-der, hwider), witherward. See remarks on thither.

When (O.E. hwanan, hwana, hwanon; later forms, whenne, whenne, hwanne, whennes, whens), whence.

In Middle English northern writers we find whe  $\beta an = O.N.$  hve  $\beta an$ . See remarks on thence.

How (O.E.  $h\hat{u}$ ), why (O.E.  $hw\hat{i}$ ), are instrumental cases of who.

In Middle English we have for why = wherefore, because. In the English Bible the mark of interrogation is wrongly printed after it.

(4) From the reflexive stem swo:—

So (O.E. swá).

Also and as are compounds of so with the adjective all.

- (5) From the demonstrative stem yo, yon, yond, yonder, beyond. See Demonstrative Pronouns, § 195, p. 91.
- (6) From the relative stem **yo** (in Sansk. ya-s, yâ, ya-t = qui, quæ, quod):—

Yea (O.E. gea, gia; later forms, yha, ya, ye; Goth. ja).

Ye-s (O.E. ge-se; later forms, 3is, yhis).

The suffix s (-se) in **yes** is perhaps the present subjunctive of the root es, to be; O.E. si, Ger. sei = let it be. In O.E. there was a negative *ne-se*.

Ye-t (O.E. gyta, geta, gyt) contains the same root.<sup>1</sup> The latin ja-m contains a cognate stem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If (O.E. gif, yif) is by some philologists connected with Goth. iba, ibai, perhaps, lest; which is probably the dative case of iba = doubt: cp. Icel. ef, doubt, if.

(7) From the demonstrative sam :--

Sam, together, used by Spenser = Middle English saman, samen; cp. O.E. sam-od, sam-ad; Goth. sam-ap, together; Gr. aµa; Lat. simul.

(8) From sun-dor:—

**Asunder** (= O.E. on sundron, on sundrum) and sun-der (O.E. sundor, Goth. sun-dro, separately, apart).

- (9) From the demonstrative and negative n-:-
- (a) Now (O.E.  $n\acute{u}^1$ ),—cp. Lat. nu-n-c, num, nam, Gr.  $\nu \hat{v}\nu$ ; (b)  $\mathbf{ne} = \mathrm{not}$ , as in Chaucer; (c)  $\mathbf{no}$  (O.E.  $n\acute{a}$ ); and (d)  $\mathbf{nay}$ .

"His hors was good, but he ne was nought gay."-Prol. l. 74.

In O.E. ne = neither, nor. Spenser uses it—

"No let him then admire, But yield his sence to bee too blunt and bace."—F. Q. ii. Intr. ib.

This particle enters into the following words:—none, nought, nor, neither, never.

• (10) **Not** = nought. See § 249.

For not, not a whit, we sometimes find not a jot, not a bit; cp. Middle English never a del, never a whit.

The Latin *nihil* = not a bean. In vulgar language we hear such expressions as I *don't* care a straw, or a button, &c. So in Middle English writers we get "noght a bene (bean)," "not a kers (cress)."

Aye, sometimes used for yes, is of obscure origin; the earliest recorded spelling is "I," like the pronoun, so that the word cannot be identified with ay = always (for the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. O.E. núðá, Middle E. nouthe = now then.

etymology of which see p. 281). Can it be the pronoun itself, used as "so think I," the  $\xi \gamma \omega \gamma \epsilon$  of the Platonic dialogues? Cp. O.E. nic, 'no' (= ne ic, 'not I').

### What = why is an adverb, as—

- "What should I more now seek to say in this,
  On one jot farther linger forth my tale?"

  SACKVILLE, Duke of Buckingham.
- " What need we any spur but our own cause?"-Jul. Casar, ii. 1.

# 327. V. Compound Adverbs.

(1) There, here, where, are combined (a) with prepositions, as therein, thereinto, thereabout, thereabouts, thereafter, thereat, thereon, thereof, thereout, thereunto, thereunder, thereupon, thereby, therefore, therefrom (and Middle English therefro), therewith, therewithal, thereto, thitherto; herein, hereinto, hereabout, hereafter, hereat, hereof, hereout, hereinto, hereupon, hereby, herewith, heretofore, hitherto; wherein, whereinto, whereabout, whereat, whereof, whereunto, whereupon, whereby, wherefore, wherewith, wherewithal, wherethrough.

The pronominal adverbs have a relative force. We have seen that the Middle English indeclinable relative the and English that are followed by prepositions; hence here, there, where, are mostly followed by prepositions. We have a few compounds with prepositions preceding, as from thence, from whence.

The preposition is sometimes separated from the adverb, as "On Italize, par Rome nu on stondep" (Laz. 107). Cp. quotations under as, § 208.

(b) With so and soever, as whereso, wheresoever, wherever, whithersoever, whencesoever, whereas.

- (c) With else, some other, every, no, each, any, as elsewhere, somewhere, otherwhere, everywhere, nowhere, eachwhere (Middle English ay-where = everywhere), anywhere.
  - (2) How is combined with so, as howso, howsoever.
- (3) Other compounds have already been noticed, see § 326, pp. 281-286. To these may be added erelong, crewhile, while-ere, ere-now, withal, after-all, forthwith, at random = Fr. à randon.
- (4) Some elliptical expressions are used as adverbs, as maybe, mayhap, howbeit, as it were, to wit, to be sure.

### CHAPTER XVI

#### PREPOSITIONS

328. Prepositions are so named because they were originally prefixed to the verb, in order to modify its meaning. They express (1) the relations of space, (2) other relations derived from those of space, and marked in some languages by case-endings.

# I. Simple Prepositions.

In (O.E. in) is connected with on, an, a. In Middle English, in modern dialects, and occasionally in poetry, in often becomes i. Compare O.N. i.

At (O.E. at) corresponds to Lat. ad.

Of (O.E. of; Goth. af, from; Lat. ab, Gr. åπò Sansk. apa).

By, O.F. δί, cognate with Gr. ἀμφί, Lat. ambi.

Note.—"The single form bi of Old Teutonic was subsequently, under the influence of the stress, differentiated into the strong or accented bi (German bei), and the weak or stressless bi, later be. The strong form was used for the adverb, the accented prefix of nouns, and a stressed preposition; the weak form for the stressless prefix of verbs, and a

stressless preposition. The influence of levelling, however, tended at length to make bi (by) the separate form in all cases, and to leave be- as the weak prefix."—New English Dictionary, s. v. by.

For (O.E. for, Goth. faur, O.N. fyr, fyrir); a-fore (O.E. on-foran).

From (O.E. fram, from; Middle English fra, fro: O.N. frá).

The same root is seen in for-th, fur-ther, fur. Cp. Sansk pra, Gr.  $\pi\rho\delta$ , Lat. pro.

On (O.Sax. an; O.Fris. an,  $\hat{a}$ ; O.N.  $\hat{a}$ ; Goth. ana), up-on.

Up (O.E. up), Goth. iup; O.H.Ger. ûf.

Out (O.E. út); the older form is seen in utter, utmost.

With (O.E. with, from, against). With in its modern meaning is of comparatively recent origin; we find in O.E. mid, with; Goth. miþ, Sansk. mithas, Gr. μετά.

Through (O.E. Surh, O. Sax. thurah, Goth. pairh, Ger. durch).

**Thorough** is merely another form of *through*.

**To** (O.E. to). It is often used in the sense of 'for,' as to frend = 'for friend' (Spenser), to wife, &c.

**Too** (adv.) is another form of the same word.

# II. Compound and Derivative Prepositions.

(1) Comparatives:--

After (O.E. *wf-ter*), a comparative formed from of; cognate with Greek ἀποτέρω, Sansk. apatârim, see Comparison

of Adjectives. We have the same root in aft, eft, abaft, &c.

Ere (O.E. &r), before, corresponds to the Gothic adv. airis, comparative of air, early.

Or, as in or ever = before, is another form of the same word.

Over (O.E. ofer) is a comparative connected with up, and with the compound above (O.E. a-b-ufan); cp. Sansk. upari, Gr.  $\delta n \epsilon \rho$ , Lat. super; O.E. ufera, higher.

Under (O.E. un-der, Goth. un-dar), cognate with Latin infra, Sansk. adhas, 'below.'

(2) Prepositions compounded with prepositions: into (Middle English intill), upon, beneath, underneath, afar, before, behind, beyond, within, without, throughout [Middle English foreby, at-fore, on-foran (= afore), tofore].

But (= O.E. bútan = be-útan) is composed of be (= by) + out. In provincial English it signifies without.

**Above** = a (on) + be + ove (O.E. bufan = be-ufan). See up and over, p. 286.

About = a + be + out (O.F. abútan = a-be-útan).

Among, amongst (O.E. ge-mang, on gemong; later forms, amonges, amang).

Until and unto (which in Middle English had often the same sense) are not found in O.E., and are probably of Scandinavian origin; compare O.N. unns until, where unnrepresents an older unp-cognate with O.E.  $\delta \delta$  until (from  $an\delta$ ).

(3) Prepositions formed from substantives:-

Again, against, over against (O.E. on-géan, agean; to-gegnes, against; later forms, onzwnes, azenes, ayens; cp. Ger. ent-gegen).

Other prepositions of this class are, instead of, in behalf of, by dint of, by way of, for the sake of; abroad, abreast, atop, ahead, astride, adown, across.

(4) Adjective prepositions:-

Till (cp. O.N. til, to) seems to be a use of a substantive meaning 'goal' (so Ger. ziel), originally the neuter of the Teutonic adj. til, 'good.'

Till first makes its appearance as a preposition in the northern dialect. It occurs in the Durham Gospels (eleventh century).

In Middle E. we find intil = into.

To-ward, towards, (O.E. tó-weard, tó-weardes).

In earlier modern E. we find these elements separated. Cp.

"Thy thoughts which are to us ward."—Psalm xl. 5.

Other adverbs of this kind are afterward, afterwards, upward, froward = away from.

"Give ear to my suit, Lord; fromward hide not thy face." - Paraphrase of Psalm lv. by Earl of Surrey.

Along, alongst (O.E. andlang, ondlang, M.E. endelong, endlonges, an long, on longe, alonges, through, along).

It is often used for *lengthwise*, and is opposed to *athwart* or *across*.

<sup>&</sup>quot; be dores were alle of ademauntz eterne Iclenched over pwart and endelong."—CHAUCER, Knightes Tale.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Muche lond he him 3ef an long pare sea."-La5. 138.

There is another **along** (O.E. *ge-lang*) altogether different from this, in the sense of 'on account (of).'

- " All this is 'long of you."-Coriol. v. 4.
- " All along of the accursed gold."-Fortunes of Nigel.
- "On me is nought alonge thin yvel fare."

CHAUCER, Tr. and Cr. ii. l. 1000.

"Vor ode is al mi lif ilong."-O.E. Hom., First Series, p. 197.

Amid, amidst (O.E. on-middan, on-middun; later forms, amidde, amiddes; from the adjective midd, as in middle, mid-most).

In the midst is a compound like Middle E. in the myddes of: cp. O.E. to-middes = amidst.

Other prepositions of this kind are, around, a-slant, a-skaunt, be-low, be-twixt (O.E. between-s, be-tween, from twi, two), between (O.E. be-tweenum, betwynan), atween, atwixt.

An-ent is O.E. on-efn, on-emn, near, to-ward (later forms, on-efen-t, anent, anentes, anens, anence).

Athwart, over-thwart, thwart (O.E. Swar, on Sweorh; O.N. pwert).

Fast by (O.E. on fast, near); cp. hard by.

Since (O.E. siddan; Middle E. sippe, sipe, sin, sen; sipens, sipence, sinnes, sins).

Early and dialectal no but, not but = only.

(5) Verbal prepositions:—.

The following prepositions arise out of a participial contruction: notwithstanding, owing to, outtaken (now replaced by except), &c.

<sup>&</sup>quot;per is non, outtaken hem (= iis exceptis)."—WICKLIFFE, Mark

# 329. III. Prepositions of Romanic Origin.

- (1) Uncompounded:—per, versus, sans (= Lat. sine).
- (2) Compounded:—(a) Substantive—across, viâ, because, apropos of, by means of, by reason of, by virtue of, in accordance with, in addition to, in case of, in comparison to, in compliance with, in consequence of, in defiance of, in spite of, in favour of, in front of, in lieu of, in opposition to, in the point of, in quest of, with regard to, in reply to, with reference to, in respect of, in search of, on account of, on the plea of, with a view to.
- (b) Adjective—agreeably to, exclusive of, inclusive of, maugre, minus, previous to, relatively to, around, round, round about.
- (c) Verbal, (1) active:—during, pending, according to, barring, bating, concerning, considering, excepting, facing, including, passing, regarding, respecting, aiding, tending, touching; (2) passive:—except, excepted, past, save.

#### CHAPTER XVII

### CONJUNCTIONS

330. Conjunctions join sentences and co-ordinate terms. According to meaning, they are divided into—

Co-ordinate, joining independent propositions: (a) copulative, as and, also, &c.; (b) disjunctive, as or, else, &c.; (c) adversative, as but, yet, &c.; (d) illative, as for, therefore, hence.

Sub-ordinate, joining a dependent clause to a principal sentence: (a) those used in joining substantive clauses to the principal sentence, as that, whether; (b) those introducing an adverbial clause, marking (1) time—when, while, until; (2) reason, cause—because, for, since; (3) condition—if, unless, except; (4) purpose, end—that, so, lest.

331. According to their origin, conjunctions may be divided into—pronominal, numeral, adverbial, substantive, prepositional, verbal, compound.

# (1) Pronominal:—

And (O.Sax. endi, O.H.Ger. anti.

An = if is another form of and ; the combination and if became an if, shortened to an.

Eke = also (O.E. éac), hence, how, so, also, as, just as, as far as, in so far as, whereas, lest, then, than, thence, no sooner than, though, 2 although, therefore, that, yea, nay, what . . . and (Middle E. what . . . what), whereupon, whence whether, either, neither, or, nor.3

# (2) Numeral:—both, first, secondly, &c.

- (3) Substantive:—sometimes... sometimes, while, in case, upon condition, in order that, otherwise, likewise (:= in like wise), on the one hand... on the other hand, on the contrary, because, besides, on purpose that, at times, if (see footnote on p. 200).
- (4) Adjective (Adverbial):—even, alike, accordingly, consequently, directly, finally, lastly, namely, partly . . . partly, only, furthermore, moreover, now . . . now, anon . . . anon, lest, unless (Middle E. onlesse), &c.

# (5) Prepositional:-

- (a) Originally used before the demonstratives that or this:—ere, after, before, but, for, in (that), since (sith, sith ence<sup>4</sup>), till, until, with (that); (b) participial:—notwithstanding, except, excepting, save, saving, &c.
- (6) Verbal:—to wit, videlicet (viz.), say, suppose, considering, providing.
- (7) Compounds, being abbreviated forms of expression: not only, nathless, nevertheless, nathemore (Spenser), Middle E. nathemo, Middle E. never the later, that is, that is to say,

<sup>1</sup> We occasionally find, as in Scotch, or and nor instead of than.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> O.E. *béah*, Goth. *bau-h*, from the demonstrative stem *the*.

<sup>3</sup> Or and nor are contractions of other (not the same as the modern word, but a form of awther, O.E. áhwæþer: see the pronoun either) and nother, nawther.

<sup>4</sup> The O.E. sip-pan = sip-pam, after that.

may be, were it not, were it so, be it so, be so, how be it, albeit, Middle E. al if, &c.

So in Middle E. we have warne, warn = were it not, unless (cp. O.H.Ger.  $nur = ni \ wari = were it not$ ), equivalent to the O.E.  $ndere \ \delta \omega t$ , were it not.

### CHAPTER XVIII

### INTERJECTIONS1

332. INTERJECTIONS, having no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence, are not, strictly speaking, "parts of speech." They are either imitations of cries expressing a sudden outburst of feeling, as oh, ah, or are mere sound gestures, as st, sh.

Many words, phrases, and sentences have come to be used interjectionally, as alas, zounds, &c.

Interjections may express feelings of-

(1) Pain, weariness—ah, oh, O (O.Fr. a, ha, ahi, O, oh, ohi), ay. Middle E. interjections of pain are a, ou, ow. Welaway, welladay, O.E. wá, lá wá; lá = lo, wá = woe; wá, lá, Scotch waly, Middle E. awey (alas).

Alas (O.F. hailas, halas), alack, lackadaisy, alackaday, boohoo, out alas, O dear me, heigh ho, heigh, heyday, Middle E. hig.

- (2) **Joy**—hey, heigh (Fr. hé), hey-day, hurrah, huzza, hilliho.
- (3) **Surprise**, &c.—eh (Middle E. ey), ha, ha, ha; what, why, how, lo, la, lawk, aha (Lat. ha), ho, hi.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;Voces que cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclamationem interjiciuntur."—PRISCIAN, Inst. Gram. l. 15, c. 7.

- (4) Aversion, disgust, disapproval—fy, sie, soh, sugh, saugh, sudge, poh, pooh, pugh (Fr. pouah), baw, bah, pah, pish, pshah, pshaw, tut, whew, ugh (O.E. weu), out, out on, hence, avaunt, aroynt, begone, for shame, siddle-faddle.
- (5) Protestation—indeed, in faith, perdy, gad,<sup>2</sup> egad, ecod, ods, odd, odd's bob, odd's pettikins, udsfoot, ods bodkins, od zooks, zooks, odso, gadso, 'sdeath, 'slife, zounds, 'sbud, sblood, lord, marry, lady, bi'rlady, by'rlakin, jingo, by jingo, deuce, dyce, devil, gemminy (O gemini).
- (6) Calling and exclaiming—hilloa, holla, ho, so ho, hoy, hey, hem, harow (O. Fr. haro, a cry for help), help, hoa, bravo, well done, hark, look, see, oyes, mum, hist, whist, tut, tush, silence, peace, away, bo, shoo, shoohoo, whoa.
- (7) Doubt, consideration—why, hum, hem (Lat. hem), humph, what.
- (8) Many interjections are what are called "imitative words," or *onomatopæias*:—

Sounds produced (a) by inanimate objects—dingdong, bim-bom, ting-tang, tick-tack, thwack, whack, twang, bang, whiz, thud, whop, slap, dash, splash, clank, puff.

(b) by animate objects—bow-wow, mew, caw, purr, croak, cock-a-doodle-do, cuckoo, tu-whit, to-whoo, tu-whu, weke-weke, ha ha 3

<sup>1</sup> Selden uses pah as adj.: "It (child) all bedawbs it (coat) with its pah hands."—Table Talk.

Shakespeare has it as an interj.: "Fie, fie, fie! pah! pah! Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."—

<sup>2</sup> In gad, egad, od, the name of the Deity is profanely used. In the Middle Ages people swore by parts of Christ's body, by His sides, face, feet, bones; hair (cp. sfacks, God's hair), blood, wounds (zounds, 'od's nouns = God's wounds), life; also by the Virgin Mary (by the mackins by the maiden), by the mass; also, by the pity and mercy of God, as "by Goddes ore;" "Odd's pittikens;" by God's sanctities (God's sonties).

<sup>3</sup> Used to imitate the sound of a horse's neigh, as *Job* xxxix. 25. Luther uses had

### CHAPTER XIX

#### DERIVATION AND WORD FORMATION

333. Roots, as we have seen, are either predicative or demonstrative, and constitute the primary elements of words.

The root is the significative part of a word, as gif-t contains the root gif, to give, be-long the root long. Prefixes and suffixes serve to modify the root meaning, as the -t in gift, and the be- in belong. Many prefixes and suffixes were once independent words, which, by being added to principal roots to modify their meaning, gradually lost their independence, and became mere signs of relation, and were employed as formative elements. Cp. the origin of the adverbial suffix -ly, which originally signified like.

To get at the root of a word we must remove all the formative elements, and such changes of sound as have been produced by the addition of relational syllables.

A theme or stem is that modification that the root assumes before the terminations of declension and conjugation, or other qualifications are added, as love-d; lov (O.E. luf) is the root; love (O.E. lufo-) is the theme or stem; -d is the suffix of the past tense.

In English very many formative elements have been lost. Thus from the root gif = give the O.E. formed gif u, a gift; gif-an, to give; gif-ende, giving, a gifer; gift; gafol, tribute; Gothic has gab-ei, gain, riches; gabei-gs, rich; gab-ig-aba, richly; gib-a, gift; giban, to give; gib-and-s, a giver, giving; gab-ig-jan, to enrich; gab-ig-nan, to be rich.

# PREFIXES (OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN).

### 334. I.—Dead Prefixes.

A- has several meanings answering to several derivations.

- (1) A = O.E. an, on. A-bed, a-board, a-shore, a-field, a-foot, a-back, a-head, a-sunder, a-part; now-a-days; a-blaze, a-float, a-live.
  - (2) A = O.E. of. A-fresh, a-kin, a-new; a-down, a-thirst.
  - (3) A = O.E. and, against. A-long.
- (4) A = O. Norse at = to. A do = French affaire ( $\hat{a}$  faire).
- (5) A-= O.E. ge-. A-long = owing to, a-ware, (O.E. ge widee).

Note.—The a in a-like probably does not come from ge-in ge-lie, but from O. Norse alikr = O.E. onlie.

(6) A-= O.E. a, originally ar (rarely preserved), Gothic us-, ur-, German er-, implying motion onward or away from a position, hence away, on, up, out, and thus with verbs of motion adding intensity; as in a-bide, a-rise, a-wake.

An-= O.E. and = German ant-, ent- in an-swer (O.E. and-swaru). Cf. a-long.

At-= O.E.  $\alpha t$  in atone, i.e. to set at one. At is no longer recognizable in a-do (see  $\Lambda$ -, 4), and in twit from O.E.  $\alpha t$ -witan, to blame.

E-= O.E. ge- in enough (O.E. genoh, German genug).

For- = O.E. for-, German ver-. For-bear, for-bid, for-fend, fore-go, for-get, for-give, for-sake, for-swear.

Fro-= O.E. from, O.N. frá, Fro-ward (O.E. from weard).

Gain- = O.E. gegn-, against. Gain-say, gain-stand.

Mid-= O.E. mid = with. Mid-wife.

**N**-= O.E. *ne*, the Teutonic negative prefix. *N*-aught, *n*-either, *n*-ever, willy, *n*-illy (will he, nill he).

Or-= O.E. or-, Gothic and German ur-, in or-deal (O.E. or-del, or-del), German ur-teil, i.e. "that which is dealt out," a decision.

To-= O.E.  $t\delta$ -, German zer-.

"And a certain woman cast a piece of a millstone upon Abimelech's head, and all to-brake his scull."—Judges ix. 53. In Chaucer:—to-brekë, to break in pieces, to-beten, to beat to pieces, to-rendë, to tear to pieces.

**To**-= O.E.  $t\dot{o}$  = German zu. To-day, to-night.

**Un**-= Teutonic *und* in *un-til*, *un-to*. (See Prepositions, *unto*.)

With-= O.E.  $wi\delta =$  against. With-draw, with-hold, with-say, with-stand.

Y = O.E. ge- in past participles.

"Her sight did ravish, but her grace in speech,
Her words y-clad with wisdom's majesty,
Makes me from wondering fall to weeping joys."

I Henry VI. i. 1. 33-

"Now for the ground which; which, I mean, I walked upon: it is ycleped thy park." - Love's Labour's Lost, i. 1. 242.

## 335. II.—Living Prefixes.

After-= O.E. after-. After-growth, after-math, after-wards.

All-= O.E. eall-. Al-mighty, all-wise. In Early English al-= quite is added (1) to past participles, as al-brent = quite burnt, al-heled = quite concealed; (2) to verbs preceded by

to, as al-to-brenne = to burn up entirely. In Elizabethan and later writers all-to = altogether, quite; the original meaning of to having been lost sight of.

All to topple (Pericles, iii. 2, 17) = topple altogether; all to nought (Venus and Adonis, 993); all-to ruffled (Milton).

- Be- = O.E. be-, the most fertile of all English prefixes, is the weak form of by. The original meaning was 'about.'
- (1) It forms derivative verbs, with the sense of 'around,' 'on all sides,' 'in all directions.' Be-blear = to blear all wer; begindle; bejumble; bepaste; besmudge.
- (2) It forms intensive verbs, with the sense of 'thoroughly,' 'soundly.' Bebreech = to breech soundly; bedaub; bewelcome.
- (3) It renders intransitive verbs transitive by adding a prepositional relation. *Bechatter* = to environ with chattering; *begaze* = to gaze at; *besmile* = to smile at; *bespeak*.
- (4) It forms transitive verbs of adjectives and substantives. (a) befoul = to affect with foulness; bedin = to make dim; (b) bedew = to cover with dew; befriend.

Fore- = O.E. fore-.

- (1) With verbs:—fore-bode, fore-cast, fore-tell.
- (2) With past participles:—fore-dated, fore-said, fore-told.
- (3) With substantives:—fore-castle, fore-father, fore-sight.

In = O.E. in.

In-come, in-land, in-sight

Mis- = O.E. mis-, Gothic missa-, German miss-.

- (1) With substantives: mis-deed, mis-trust.
- (2) With verbs: -mis-call, mis-behave, mis-take.

Off- = O.E. of 1:-of-fal, off-set, off-spring.

<sup>1</sup> There is the same relation between of and off as between be and by; O.E. of has been differentiated into the stressless or weak form of, and the stressed or strong form off.

Thorough = O.E. Surh, through:—thorough-fare.

Un- = O.E. on (un-) German ent-.

Un-bind, un-bosom, un-do, un-lock, un-wind.

**Un-** = O.E. *un-* the Teutonic negative particle:—*un- couth, un-true, un-truth.* 

Under = O.E. under-

- (1) With substantives: -under-growth, under-wood.
- (2) With verbs:—under-go, under-take, under-sell, under-prize.

 $Up = O.E. \ up = Ger. \ auf$ 

- (1) With substantives: -up-land, up-shot, up-start.
- (2) With adjectives :—up-right, up-ward.
- (3) With verbs :-up-bear, up-braid, up-hold, up-set.

**Out-** = O.E. út- = Ger. aus-:-out-break, out-bud, out-cast, out-pour, out-side.

## PREFIXES (OF ROMANIC ORIGIN).

336. I.—Dead Prefixes.

A-, ab-, as- (Latin), away from :-

Avert, abdicate, abjure, abscond, absent.

Abridge from French abréger, Latin ab-breviare; assoil from O. French assoilier = Latin absolvere.

Ad- (Latin):---

Adapt, adore, adhere, adjoin, accept, accumulate, affirm, affix, affront, aggravate, alleviate, allege, appear, apply, arrive, assail, assent, assets, attain.

Through the medium of O.French came in:-

Achieve (French achever, formed from the phrase à chief [venir], late Latin ad caput venire, to come to a head, to bring to a head, to finish), agree (French agréer, looks as if

it were formed from a Latin word ad-gratare), amerce (to punish, to fine, from Anglo-French amercier, which was formed from estre à merci, to be at the mercy of any one, estre amercié, to be fined at will), amount (O.Fr. amunter, à mont, L. ad montem), acquit (O.Fr. acuiter, as it were from a Latin word ad-quietare, to appease, to settle), acquaint (O.Fr. acointier, late Latin ad-cognitare), avow (Fr. avouer, L. ad-votare).

Apte- (O. French ans, ains, eins):—

Antecede, ante-chamber;—ancestor (O.Fr. ancestre, L. antecessor).

Amb-, am- (Latin), about :— Amb-i-ent, am-putate.

Circum-, circu- (Latin), round about :-

Circumstance (through French circumstance), circumscribe, circuit).

De- (Latin, French  $d\hat{e}$ ), down, from, away:—

Decline, descend, depart.

It is negative and oppositive in destroy, desuetude, deform. It is intensitive in declare, desolate, desiccate.

**Ob-** (Latin, becomes by assimilation oc, of, op), in front of, against:—

Obviate, occur, offer, offend, oppugn.

Through French came in :--

Obey (Fr. obéir, L. obedire), obeisance (its Latin doublet is obedience), oblige, occasion, offence, office, oppose.

Per- (Latin per, French par), through:

Perfect, persuade, peracute.

Of French origin are:—Perceive, perish, pierce, pursue; pertinence, appurtenance.

**Pro-** (Latin, French *pro*, *por*, *pour*), forth, forward, before, instead:—

Proconsul, progeny.

Of French origin are:-

Proceed, procure, progress, projess; purchase (O.Fr. purchaser), purpose (a doublet of propose), pursue (Fr. poursuivre), purvey (O.Fr. purveir).

Se-, sed (Latin, Fr. sé), apart, away:— Secede, seclude, sedition, seduce.

Subter-, under :—
Subterfuge, subterhuman.

Un-, uni-, one :— Unanimous, uniform.

Male-, mal- (Latin male, Fr. mal, mau), ill:—

Malcontent, malediction, malevolent; through French:

maugre (notwithstanding).

## 337. II.—Living Prefixes.

Com-, con-, co- (Latin; O. Fr. com, cum, con, cun):— Command, comprehend, collect, col-lingual, collocate, collate. Co-eval, co-operate.

Conduct, confirm, conjure, consent.

Through the medium of O.Fr. came in:-

Conceive (O.Fr. concevoir, L. concipere), conquer (O.Fr. conquerre, L. conquirere), convey (O.Fr. conveier, L. conviare), counsel, countenance, count (conter, L. computare), cost (O.Fr. coster, L. constare), couch (O.Fr. colcher, coucher, L. collocare).

"In Latin the preposition com was shortened to co before vowels and h, also before gn, e.g. coalescere, coercere, coordus, cohærere, cognatus. Partly from the greater syllabic distinctness of this form of the prefix, arising out of the natural break between it and the following vowel, whereby also, on

the break-down of the older quantitative system, the obecame a long vowel, partly from the readiness with which some compounds of this type, as co-æqualis, co-adjutor, co-episcopus, co-hæres, were analysed into their elements, co-has become in English to be a living formative, the use of which is no longer restricted to words beginning with a vowel, but extended to all words of analogous kinds, including native English or other words, as well as those from Latin. The general sense is 'together,' 'in company,' 'in common,' 'joint-ly,' 'equal-ly,' 'reciprocally,' mutually.'"—New English Dictionary.

Instances of English formation with co-:-

- (1) With verbs: co-admire, co-attend, co-enjoy, co-love, w-raise.
  - (2) With adjectives: co-ardent, co-divine, co-pleased.
- (3) With substantives: co-abode, co-life, co-actor, co-believer, co-rival.

Contra-, contro-, counter- (Latin contra, Fr. contre), against:—

Contra-dict, contro-vert;

Of French origin are: counter-balance, counter-feit;

Of English formation: counter-action, counter-bond, counter-act, counter-current, etc.

Dis-, di- (Latin, O.Fr. des, Mod. Fr. dis, dés, di, de; by assimilation dif), asunder, apart, in two; difference, negation:—

Differ, dilate, dilute, discern, disturb.

Of French origin are: Descant, descry, despatch, discharge, discover, disdain, disease, diminish, distance.

Formations in English: dislike, disown.

**Ex-**, **e-** (Latin, O. French es, Mod. Fr. é, ex; by assimilation ef), out of, from:—

Exalt, exhale; elect, evade; effect, effuse.

Ex in a privative sense is a living formative:—

Ex-emperor, ex-mayor, etc.

Note.—Ex is no longer recognisable in the following words which have come into English through the medium of French:—

Affray (O. French effrayer, esfreer, from late Latin ex-fridare, ex out of + late Latin fridus, German Friede, peace), amend (O.Fr. amender, Lat. emendare), escape, escheat (the lapsing of land to the Crown, or to the lord of the manor, on the death of the owner intestate without heirs; O.Fr. eschele, from escheoir, late Lat. ex-cadēre, to fall to a person's share), essay (O.Fr. essai from late Latin exagium in the sense of ex-amen, later form of ex-agmen), issue (O.Fr. issir=Latexire), sample (doublet of example).

Extra-, beyond :--

Extraneous, extraordinary, extravagant.

English formations (in which extra- is an abbreviation of extraordinary): extra-hours, extra-regular, extra-work.

**Em-, en-,** the forms assumed in French and English by the Latin prepositional prefix in. Em appears before b, f, and m.

- (1) Verbs formed by prefixing en to substantives:

  chalm, embark, embillow; empaper, emplaster; emmarvel;
  encihion\_enthyone.
  - (2) Verbs formed of adjectives or substantives with the suffix -en:

Embolden, enlighten, "liven.

(3) Verbs formed of other verbs:—

Emblaze, embreathe, embroider: enact, enchant, enclose, endure, etc.

In-, im-, in, into, on, within.

Inaugurate, innovate, innate, invade;

illustrate, illusion;

imbibe, impart;

irrigate, irritate.

In-(Latin, cp. Greek av, Engl. un), not. Like the Engl. un it is prefixed to substantives and adjectives:—

- (1) Inconvenience, impiety, illiberality, etc.
- (2) Incautious, impolitic, illegal, irregular.

Inter-, intro- (Latin, O.Fr. entre, inter), between, within, among:—

Intercede, intercept, interdict; introduce, intromit; introduction, introgression.

Of French origin are: Interfere, interlace, interplead, interpose; entertain, enterprise.

English formations: interlink, intermarry, intermix, etc.

Post-, after:---

Post-date, post-diluvial, post-pone, post-script.

Pre- (Latin, French pré-), before:-

Precede, presume, pretence; precinct, preface, prefect, prelate. English formations: pre-arrange, pre-meditate, etc.

Preter-, Latin preter, beyond, past:-

Preterite, pretermit.

English formations: pretercanine (Brontë, J. Eyre 1. 171), reterhuman, preternatural.

Re-, red-, back, again:—

Recur, recollect, redolent, redound, etc.

Of French origin are: receive, reclaim, recreant.

English formations: re-arrange, re-build, re-open, etc.

Retro-, backwards :--

Retrocede, retrograde, retrospect.

Of French origin are: rereward (F. arrière-garde, arrière = ad retro), rear-guard, rear, arrear.

**Sub**-, under, up from below; by assimilation (before c, f, g, m, p, r, s) suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus:—

Subject, suffix, suppress, etc.

Of French origin are: succour, summon (O.F. somoner, Latin submonere).

English formations: sub-let, sub-kingdom, sub-worker.

**Super**- (Latin, O.Fr. sovre, sor, Mod. Fr. sur), above, beyond:—

Superlative, superstition, etc.

Of French origin are: Surface, surfeit, surpass, surprise.

There are a great many English compounds with this very fertile formative: super-abundant, super-cargo, super-critical, etc.

Trans- (O.Fr. tres), across :-

Transform, translate, transmontane.

Trespass is of French origin (O.Fr. trespas, as if it were from a Latin word transpassus).

Vice-, instead of :---

Vice-agent, vice-chancellor, vice-roy.

Bis-, bi-, twice; bini, two by two:-

Bissextile, biennial, binocular.

Biscuit is of French origin.

Demi- (French demi, Lat. dimidium):-

Demigod, demiquaver.

Semi-, half:-

Seini-annual, semi-circle, semi-column.

338. NOTE I.—In Middle E. and even in the Elizabethan writers prefixes were sometimes omitted, in other words the simple word was used in the same sense as a compound.

Nu wile I shawenn zuw forrhwi zho zaff swillee sware owzenes

Now I shall show you why she gave such an answer).—Ormulum, 2122. Sware = andsware.

pat lang was hight nu cumen he is (he that was long promised is now come).—Cursor Mundi, 17820.

Hight = behight.

Thou hast famed foule bifore the kyng heere.—Piers Plowman, A. III. 179.

Famed = defamed; cp. Cursor Mundi, 13024.

Kive = arrive.—Arthur and Merlin, 133; Sir Benes of Hampton, 515. Tent = entent, intent.—Ipomadon, 519; Cursor Mundi, 661, 1100. Found = confound.—George-a-Green (ed. Dyce), p. 207.

In words with the prefix des (dis) de was often dropped.

Wycliff has disclaundren and sclaundren.—English Works (ed. Matthew), p. 138 and 144; stroien = distroier, p. 83; cp. Libeaus Desconus, 87; Sowdon of Babylone, 780.

Scomfit = discomfit (defeat) is very frequent.

In Modern English we have a few remnants of this tendency to drop dv:=

Spite, Middle E. despite, O.Fr. despit, Mod. French dépit.

Sport, Middle E. desport; cp. disport.

Stain, Middle E. disteinen, O. Fr. desteindre.

Stress, Middle E. distress.

Note 2.—If, in Middle E. the indefinite article, the possessive pronoun, or the demonstrative that was followed by a noun beginning with a vowel, the final -n or -t of the dependent word was often separated from the words to which it belonged, and joined to the noun:—

- (1) a nasse = an ass.—Cursor Mundi, 3152. a nogli dede = an ugly deed.—Ibid. 1106. Of a nellen heght þai ware = an elne = a yard.—Ibid 1419. a nath = an oath.—Ibid. 3548.
- (2) be tother = pat other.—Ibid. 84.1 Very frequent in Middle E.
- (3) bi neme = bin eme = thy uncle.—Cursor Mundi, 3789.

  Cp. Sir Tristrem, 921.

  bi nere = bin ere = thy heir.—Cursor Mundi, 2565.

  bi nare = bin are = thy mercy.—Ibid. 10099.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. a toome = at (h) c = at home.—Andrew Boorde, p. 122.

In Mod. E. there are several remnants of this misdivision:-

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A newt = Middle E. an ewt;
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a nick-name = an eke-name;—on the other hand an initial n belong ing to the substantive was wrongly added to the article, hence:—

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an adder = a nadder (German Natter);
an apron = a napron (O.Fr. naperon);
an auger = a nauger;
an umpire = a numpire,
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Riding, one of the divisions of the county of York, derives from theriding, O.N., prijungr, the third part, which word gave the compounds North-thriding, East-thriding, West-thriding. In consequence of misdivision the th was dropped, when the second part of the compound was used by itself.

## SUFFIXES (OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN).

339. A.—Noun Suffixes (Properly so called).

#### I.—Dead Suffixes.

-ock :-bullock, buttocks, hillock, hummock, mullock, pinnock, ruddock.

In Lowland Scotch we find laddock, lassock, mannock, wifock.

Proper names too, as Davock, Bessock.

In proper names the suffix appears, as *Pollock* (from Paul), *Baldock* (from *Baldwin*), *Wilcock*, *Wilcox* (from William).

-kin (O.E. -cen, German -chen) is a diminutive ending:

Bumpkin, firkin, kilderkin, lambkin, napkin.—Manikin came in through the French:—mannequin from Low-German männe-ken, High-German männ-chen, little man.

In proper names:—Dawkin (David), Jenkins (John). Perkins (Peter-kin), Simkin (Simon), Wilkins (William).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Very rare; the currency of the suffix is due to words adopted from Dutch or Low German.

X

-ing, representing Teutonic -ingoz (masc.), has several functions:—

- (1) -ing (O.E. -ing), patronymic:—O.E. æ\[Selling\] (the son of a noble), cyning (literally 'son of a king,' cyne = king); Sellfing (the son of Skilf), Elising (the son of Elisa). This suffix is preserved in proper names:—Harding, Manning, especially in place-names:—Billingsgate, Reading.
- (2) -ing is also found in names of animals, as in herring, whiting.
- (3) -ing in names of coins has also a sense of diminution, a. in farthing (= the fourth part, namely, of a penny), shilling.
- -ling (O.E. -ling) originally denotes smallness; hence it may be used to express affection, as in *darling* (O.E. *déorling*, literally 'dearling,' favourite), *duckling*, *gosling*, or contempt as in *groundling*, *hireling*, *underling*, *worldling*.
- -1, -le, -el (after v, th, ch, u) represents O.E. -el, -ela, | -ele, and serves to form agent-nouns, instrumental substantives, and diminutives:—

Nail, sail; beadle, fiddle; sickle; apple, bramble, bundle, icicle, nettle, runnel.

-le, -al is sometimes from O.E. -els from isli:— Bridle, riddle, burial.

- -er (O.E. -er, -or): finger, hammer, hunger, lair, silver, summer.
  - -m (O.E. -ma): Blossom \*(O.E. blostma), helm, thumb.
  - (1) Participles: broken, hewn, etc.
- (2) Substantives: bairn, beacon, burden, chin, corn, heaven, maiden.

-nd: Fiend, friend.

Both these substantives are originally present participles from the verbs Gothic fijan (to hate): frijôn (to love) fijands. O.E. feond, frijonds, O.E. freond.

-est: earnest, harvest.

**-th** (O.E.  $-n\delta$ ,  $-\delta$ ,  $-\delta u$ ) forms abstract substantives of adjectives and, later on, of verbs. *Dearth*, *death*, *depth*, *health*, *length*, *mirth*, *strength*, *truth*, *warmth*; *growth*, *stealth*. With *t* instead of *-th*: *drought*, *height*, *theff*.

## II .- Living Suffixes.

-en (O.E. -en) is added to noun-stems to form adjectives chiefly indicating the material of which a thing is composed. From the sixteenth century onwards there has been a tendency to discard these adjectives for the attributive use of the substantive, as in "a gold watch"; only a few words are still familiarly used in their literal sense.

Earthen, wheaten, wooden, woollen.

-ed has two different sources :-

- (1) It is cognate with the Aryan suffix -tό, Greek, -τός and serves to form the past participle of weak verbs.
- (2) It is = O.E. -ede, and is appended to substantives in order to form adjectives connoting the possession or the presence of the attribute or thing expressed by the substantive. This suffix is now added without restriction to any substantive from which it is desired to form an adjective, with the sense "possessing, proyided with, characterized by."

  —New English Dictionary.

Booted, feathered, horned, wooded, &c.

-er (O.E. -ere, cognate with Gothic -areis, Latin -arius). In its original use this suffix was added to substantives, forming derivative substantives with the general sense "a

man who has to do with (the thing denoted by the primary substantive)," and hence chiefly serving to designate persons according to their profession or occupation; e.g. Gothic bôkareis, O.E. bôcere, scribe, scholar from bôk, book; O.E. sangere, German, Sänger, singer, from sangwo-, song. Of this type there are many specially English formations: hatter, slater, tinner.

Most of the substantives which in early Teutonic gave rise to derivatives in -arjo-z also gave rise to weak verbs in -jan of -ôjan to which the former stood related in sense as agent-nouns. Hence, by analogy, the suffix came to be regarded as a formative of agent-nouns, and with this function it was added to verbal stems both of the weak and the strong conjugation. In Mod.E. they may be formed on all verbs, excepting some of those which have agent-nouns ending in -or, and some others for which this function is served by substantives of different formation (e.g. correspond, correspondent). N.E.D.

Grinder, speaker, rider, singer; leader, lender, lover.

Note.—When the primitive substantive ends in O.E. in 3e, the suffix assumes the form -yer, as in however, lawyer, sawyer; and either after the analogy of these or by assimilation to French derivatives in -ier, it appears as -ier in certain other words of Middle E. date, as brasier, dothier, rollier, glazier, grazier, hosier.

-ing as a living suffix has two sources:-

(1) O.E. -ung, -ing, forming nouns of action from verbs; these often acquire a concrete sense:—

Coming, dwelling, living, etc.

(2) an alteration of O.E. -ende, M.E. -inde, the ending of present participles (often used as adjectives):—

Charming, crowning, loving, etc.

-ish (O.E. -isc) forms adjectives from names of nations:—
English, Irish. Contracted forms:—French (O.E. Frencisc, German Frünkisch), Scotch, Welsh (O.E. Welisc).

It conveys a sense of diminution and contempt:—

Longish, oldish, reddish, whitish: childish, womanish.

-ness (O.E. -nis, -nes) forms abstract nouns from adjectives:—

Goodness, greatness, sickness, sweetness.

- -ster (O.E. -estre), originally a sign of the feminine gender, as in O.E. bacestre (female baker), tappestre (female tapster). Later on -ster was also applied to men. Many of these trade-names in -ster survive only as proper names, such as Baxter, Brewster, Webster. In Mod.E. this ending is also used to express "one who does a thing habitually," generally with an implication of contempt, as in punster, trickster.
  - -y, -ie.—The Teutonic suffix -ig (-ag) served in English
- (1) As a substantival suffix, as in bod-ig (body), ifig (ivy), hunig (honey). Perhaps the final -y, sometimes spelled -ie, with which in Modern E. nouns are made into diminutives or words of contempt, is a survival of this suffix, cp. puppy, baby, lassie, from pup, babe, lass, Billy from Bill = William, Betsy, Lizzie.
- (2) -ig as a living formative forms adjectives from substantives:—

Bloody, crafty, dusty, foamy, etc.

It is likewise added to Romanic words:—flowery, savoury, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sweet, New English Grammar, § 1608.

# 340. B.—Noun Suffixes, formerly Independent Words.

The following formations might really be treated under the head of *Composition:*—

## 1.—Forming Substantives.

## I.—Dead Suffixes.

-head in godhead, maidenhead. For this suffix see under -hood, below, p. 322.

-lock in wedlock. In O.E. -lác was added to stems in the sense of 'action,' as in réaflác (robbery), wedlác (marriage).

Knowledge, Middle E. knowleche and knowlage seems to be from the verb knawlechen, with suffix O.E. lécan (as in néahlécan to approach), derived from -lác.

-red (O.E. -réden, from the noun réden 'regulation,' 'agreement'); in O.E. it was applied only to nouns, as fréondréden (relationship, friendship), mannréden (allegiance). Hatred dates from the Middle E. period; kindred was in O.E. cynren (line of descendants), a shortening of cynn-ryne (running, course of kin), in Middle E. the meaningless -ren was supplanted by -red.

-ric, -rick (O.E. rice, German Reich, province, dominion, in many compounds as heofon-rice, 'the kingdom of heaven,' cyne-rice, 'kingdom'):—

Bishopric (O.E. bisceoprice), the province of a bishop: a diocese.

## II.-Living Suffixes.

-craft (O.E. cræft, skill, art):-

Book-craft, leech-craft, priest-craft, star-craft, wood-craft.

-dom (O.E. dóm, judgment, authority, rank, power, German -thum):—

Dukedom, kingdom, thraldom, wisdom.

-hood (O.E.  $h\acute{a}d$ , rank, condition, character, nature, as in bisceop-h\acute{a}d, rank of a bishop, episcopacy;  $meg \delta - h\acute{a}d$ , virginity); the regular development of  $h\acute{a}d$ , as an independent word, would be hoad (cp.  $d\delta$ , oath,  $r\acute{a}d$ , road); but as a suffix we find it represented by two distinct forms, both irregular, which are not easy to account for  $^1$ :—

-head (Middle E. -hede) in maidenhead, godhead;

-hood as a living formative in many words of old and recent origin:—

Childhood, manhood; hardihood, likelihood.

-kind (O.E. cynn):—

Mankind, womankind.

-ship (O.E. -scipe, from scieppan, to create, shape):— Friendship, hardship, lordship, worship.

1 The suffix being unstressed, the modern representative of the d would normally be the obscure short vowel (nearly resembling the u in but) as in stirrup, O.E. stig-rdp; probably this would be the sound were when oo stood for the long o. The form -head (Middle E. -hede) is store puzzling; Mr. Sweet suggests that the original brother-red (see -red in I.) was changed into brother-hede, and that the suffix thus evolved was extended to other words which had originally -hdd; others have thought that in some O.E. dialect -hdd may have formed its instrumental case with yowel-mutation, -hdde.

## 2.—Forming Adjectives.

#### I.-Dead Suffixes.

-fast (O.E. fæst):— Soothfast, steadfast.

-worth (O.E. weorð, wurð):— Dearworth, stalworth (stalwart).

## II.-Living Suffixes.

-fold (O.E. -feald):-

Two-fold, manifold, etc.

-ful (O.E. -full):-

Artful, careful, hateful, etc.

-less (O.E. *léas*, destitute of, Gothic -laus, German -lus):—

Artless, fearless, joyless, etc.

-ly (O.E. -lic, originally = 'body,' wiffic thus meaning 'having the body or form of a woman,') is added to substantives and adjectives:

Manly, godly, wifely; goodly, loathly.

-some (O.E. -sum, German -sam):—

Burdensome, handsome, troublesome;

blithesome, wearisome, wholesome.

Buxom originally means 'pliable,' 'good-natured,' O.E. búhsum from búgan to bow, bend.

-ward (O.E. -weard) is connected with O.E. weordan, to become, Latin verti. It forms adjectives from substantives, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions:—

Eastward, homeward, townward;

midward;

downward, upward;

forward, inward, toward.

## 3.—Forming Adverbs.

#### I.—Dead Suffixes.

-ling, -long (O.E. -lunga):—
Darkling, headlong, sidelong.

-meal (O.E. -m\u00e1lum):-

Inchmeal, (Tempest, ii., 2, 3) (by inchmeals), limb-meal (Cymbeline ii., 2, 147), piecemeal.

## II .- Living Suffixes.

-ly (O.E. -lice, the adverbial form of adjectives ending in -lic; when final -e was dropped and thus the distinction between adjectives and adverbs was lost, the ending -ly was seized upon as a mark of adverbial function):—

Hardly, utterly, wickedly.

-wise (O.E. wise, manner, mode):-

Crosswise, likewise, nowise, otherwise.

-ways :---

Always, otherways.

## 341. C.—VERBAL SUFFIXES.

#### I .- Dead Suffixes.

Many strong verbs inserted in Teutonic -j between the root and endings, such as bid-j-an, O.E. biddan (to bid), skap-j-an, O.E. scieppan (to create, shape), sit-j-an, O.E. sittan (to sit).

Of the suffixes which served to build up the three classes of weak verbs only the suffix -jo has left its traces in the so-called causative verbs whose vowel-mutation is due to the -j of the suffix -jo.

-k serves as a frequentative in some verbs:-

Heark (O.E. héarcnian, hýrcnian, German horchen) from hear:

Lurk (Middle E. lurken) from a Scandinavian word lúra, Eng. to lour: cp. German lauern;

Walk (O.E. wealcan); cp. German wallen.

-1 adds to the root the sense of frequency, repetition, diminution:—

Drizzle, grapple, nestle, sparkle.

-s used to form transitive verbs from adjectives has survived in two instances:—

Cleanse (O.E. cliensian), rinse (Scandinavian hreinsa, from hreinn, pure, Germ. rein).

## II.—Living Suffixes.

The only living verbal formative is -en:-

Darken, deepen, harden, madden, moisten, widen; hearten, heighten, lengthen, strengthen.

"Most of the words of this type seem to have been formed in late M.E. or early Mod. E. on the analogy of a few verbs which came down from O.E., or were adopted from O.N.; e.g. fasten, O.E. fastnian; brighten, O. Northumbrian berhtnia; harden, O.N. hardna."—New English Dictionary

## SUFFIXES (OF ROMANIC ORIGIN).

342. A.-+Noun Suffixes.

1.—Forming Substantives.

## I.-Dead Suffixes.

-ive (iff), originally an adjectival suffix:—

Baillif (O.Fr. baillif, object case of baillis, late Latin

bajulivus, from bajulus, 'a carrier,' afterwards 'carrier on,' 'manager,' 'administrator').

Captive, motive, native, plaintiff.

-or, -our, forming agent-nouns; from Old French -or, our (in Modern French -eur), originally representing L. -ātōrem, but in F. still a living suffix:—

Conqueror, emperor, saviour.

-or, -our, forming abstract nouns from Latin -orem through Old French -our:—

Ardour, colour, favour, honour.

Note.—There are a few English formations with -our, but this suffix cannot properly be called "living." Demeanour, behaviour.

-ule forming diminutives, from L. -ulus, -ulu, -ulum in capsule, globule, pustule, also -cule (Lat. culus, -cula, -culum) as animalcule, molecule, or (through French) -cle as:—

Article.

A different Latin suffix -culum, forming substantives from verbs, is represented in the form -cle in several words adopted through French:—

Miracle, oracle, spectacle.

-ance, -ence (Latin -antia, entia, French -ance):-

Arrogance, entrance, grievance, repentance; experience, innocence, penitence.

-ancy, -ency ("a modern English differentiated form of the earlier -ance, expressing more distinctly the sense, of quality, state, or condition, often belonging to Latin substantives in -ntia, as in elegantia, 'elegant-ness,' prudentia, 'prudentness,' as distinct from the sense of action or process, regularly expressed by the French form -ance, as in aid-ance,

assist-ance, guidance. If the Latin diligentia, elegantia, prudentia were now for the first time adopted as English, they would be made diligency, elegancy, prudency; they owe their existing forms in -nce to the fact that they were adopted from French long before -ncy came in use. But many words, once like these, have been refashioned, and now appear with -ncy, e.g. constancy, infancy, piquancy, vacancy; the modern tendency being to confine -nce to action, and to express quality or state by -ncy; cf. compliance, pliancy, annoyance, buoyancy.") New English Dictionary.

-ant, -ent, from the object case of the Latin present participle -ans (genitive antis), -ens and the corresponding French suffix -ant:—

Inhabitant, instant; agent, student, torrent; merchant, servant.

-ard (O. French -ard, -art, German -hart, 'hard, strong'; in German it forms part of personal names as in Rein-hard, Gotthardt, Eberhard, neidhart, an envious man. In French it was used in an intensive, augmentative, and often pejorative sense, as in bastard, canard, mouchard, vieillard):—

Bastard, coward, drunkard, laggard, sluggard, wizard.

-ary (Latin -arius) :--

Dignitary, incendiary, secretary.

-ice, -ess, -ise (Latin -itia, -ities, late Latin -icia, French -esse):—

Avarice, cowardice, justice, malice, notice; largess, riches (mistaken for a plural).

-ion, -sion, -tion, (Latin -io -tio, -sio, French -ion, -tion, -sion):—

Opinion, rebellion, religion; aversion, compulsion, derision; action delusion faction.

Note.—Some words ending in -son came in through French, where the regular development of the Latin suffix -tio(n) is -son, as in raison, trahison (cp. tradition). Hence in English:—

Arson, reason, treason.

-itude (Latin -itudo) :-

Fortitude, multitude, servitude.

-ty (Latin tas, -tatem, O. French té): -

Authority, beauty, bounty, charity, cruelty, frailty, honesty.

-ure (Latin -ura, French -ure):-

Capture, censure, departure.

In the words leisure, pleasure, treasure we have a change of suffix, cp. French loisir (O. French leisir, Latin licere), plaisir (Latin placere), trésor.

-y (Latin -ia, French -ie):-

Barony, comedy, family, tragedy.

-y (Latin -ium) :---

Augury, monastery, remedy.

-y (Latin -atus, French -é):--

Clergy, county, duchy, treaty.

-y (Latin -ata, French ée):--

Army, country, destiny, entry.

## II.—Living Suffixes.

-ade (Latin -ata, which, in popular French words appears as -ée, becomes -ade in words which are borrowed from the Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, and even Italian, as in accolade, gasconnade). From French words in -ade

many were adopted in English, as ambassade, ambuscade, balustrade, brigade, cascade, etc. In imitation of these some have been formed in English itself, as blockade, gingerade, orangeade.

```
-age (-aticum, French -age):—
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Cordage, language, personage, voyage, etc.

- Of English formation: Bondage, brewage, cellarage, parsonage.
  - -al. Latin nouns in -ālia (neut. plur.) which survived into O.Fr. became -aille (fem. sing.) adopted in Middle E. as -aylle, -aille, later -aile, -al, as Latin sponsālia, O.Fr. espousailles, Middle E. spousaille, spousal; L. battālia, O.Fr. bataille, Middle E. bataille, batail, battle. On this analogy, -aille, -ail, -al became a formative of nouns of action on verbs of French or Latin, and even of Teutonic origin.

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Approval, avowal;
denial, dismissal;
removal, revival;
betrothal, bestowal, withdrawal.
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-an (Latin -anus, French -ain, -en, originally an adjectival suffix):—

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Artisan, pagan, publican, veteran;
Anglican, Arminian, Lutheran;
American, Oxonian, Russian.
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-cy, -sy (originally answering to Latin -tia, as in constancy, or Latin -tio, as in conspiracy, obstinacy; later on it became an independent suffix denoting condition, rank, and office):—.

```
Accuracy, bankruptcy, intimacy, lunacy; captaincy, curacy, magistracy, papacy; minstrelsy.
```

-ee (French -&) was first used in technical terms of English law in imitation of Old French words, as appellee (Fr. apelé), indorsee (a person in whose favour a draft is indorsed); later on it became an independent living suffix, denoting, in most cases, the indirect object of the verbs from which they are derived:—

Grantee, jestee, legatee, mortgagee, trustee.

In absentee, devotee, the old function of -ee is entirely lost; refugee appears to be adopted from French refugie; grandee is adopted from the Spanish grande.

-er, -eer, -ier, -ar (Latin -arius, Fr. -ier):—
Archer, butcher, carpenter, draper, messenger, prisoner;
engineer, harpooneer, mountaineer, pioneer;
brigadier, cavalier;
calendar, scholar, vicar.

-ess (late Latin -issa, Fr. -esse) denotes the female sex in persons and animals:—

Baroness, countess, goddess, etc.

See Substantives, p. 140.

-et (French -et, feminine -ette, of unknown origin) forms diminutives:—

Castlet, circlet, coronet, lancet, locket, pocket, turret.

Certain diminutives formed with -et on substantives ending in -el, such as castlet, circlel, have given rise to a new suffix -let, which has become in English a living formative instead of -et:—

Bracelet, frontlet, leaflet, ringlet, streamlet.

-ism, -icism (Latin -ismus from Greek -ισμός):—
Archaism, despotism, hypnotism, mannerism, mesmerism;
Anglicism, Gallicism, Scotticism;
funaticism, witticism.

-ist (Latin -ista from Greek -ιστής forms agent-nouns with the sense of 'trade,' 'pursuit,' adherence to creed and party:—

Artist, chemist, copyist, dramatist, florist, tobacconist, communist, nihilist, royalist.

-ite (Latin -ita from Greek -ίτης) originally forms names of nations, as Canaanite, Israelite, Semite; now it has also the sense of belonging to a creed or party, thus being the suffix -ist:—

Ibsenite, Jacobite, Jesuit.

-ment (Latin -mentum, Fr. -ment):---

Experiment, instrument, pavement;

Of English formation:—

Acknowledgement, enjoyment, employment.

- -ry (French -rie = er + ie, had originally a collective reaning, as chevalerie "body of knights") serves several rections:—
- (a) action or quality:—

  Bigotry, devilry, drudgery, pedantry, knavery, revelry, reery;
- (b) condition:—
  Outlawry, slavery;
- (c) trade:—
  Carpentry, chemistry, heraldry;
- (d) the place of action or occupation:— Buttery, laundry, nursery, rookery;
- (e) the result or product of action:—
  Poetry, tapestry;
- (f) forming collective nouns:—
  Infantry, peasantry, yeomanry.

## 2. - Forming Adjectives.

#### I.—Dead Suffixes.

-ant, -ent (Latin present participles, French -ant):—
Abundant, arrogant, buoyant, brilliant;
absent, eminent, innocent, penitent.

-ar (Latin -aris, French -ier or -aire): Angular, familiar, popular, regular.

-ary (Latin -arius, French -aire):— Contrary, necessary, secondary.

-ate, see below -t.

-bund and -cund (Latin -bundus and -cundus, French -bond and -cond):—

Facund, moribund, rubicund.

-ent, see above -ant.

-esque (French -esque, Italian -esco from the Teutonic suffix -isc: see -ish above, § 339):—

Arabesque, burlesque, grotesque, romanesque.

This might almost be reckoned among living suffixes, as words like *Dantesque* are often imitated in the formation of new adjectives on proper names, with the notion "resembling the style of": *Carlylesque*, *Turneresque*.

-id (Latin -idus):— Liquid, morbid, sordid.

-il, -ile (Latin -ilis from verbal roots, -ilis from nounstems):—

Civil; fragile, hostile, servile.

-ior (Latin -ior, the comparative ending): - · Inferior, junior, senior.

-ive (Latin -ivus):—
Active, extensive, furtive.

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-lent (Latin -lentus):—
Corpulent, esculent, violent.
```

-t, -ate, -ete, -ite, -ute (all adapted forms of the endings of past participles in Latin according to the conjugation of the verbs from which they are formed):—

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Abject, abrupt, distinct, elect, perfect; accurate, desolate, ordinate; complete, replete; contrite, definite, exquisite; absolute, acute, destitute, minute.
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## II.—Living Suffixes.

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-al (Latin -alis, French -al, -el):—
Annual, casual, equal, legal, loyal, mortal;
Of English or French formation:—
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Circumstantial, cordial, constitutional, marginal, national, proportional.

Cp. below -ical.

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-an (Latin -anus, French -ain, -en):—
Human, pagan, urban;
Of English formation:—
Anglican, Mahomedan, reptilian, suburban.
See above, Substantives, p. 329.
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-ble (Latin, according to the stem-ending, -abilis, -ebilis, -ibilis, -ubilis; the most numerous of the words in -ble being those in -able, this form of the suffix was adopted as a living formative):—

Invincible, dissoluble; amiable, blamable, chargeable, favorable, malleable. In most cases this suffix has a passive meaning.

Note.—The great applicability of *able* is best seen in the coinage of the words *come-at-able*, *get-at-able*.

-ese (Latin -ensis, O. French -eis, Mod. French -eis, -ais):—

Chinese, Japanese, Milanese; Carlylese, Johnsonese.

-ian (Latin -ianus, French -ien):Arabian, Christian, Italian.
Cp. -an above.

-ic (Greek -ικόs, Latin -icus, French -ic, -igne): —'
Aesthetic, aromatic, athletic, domestic, emphatic.

-ical :-

Angelical, comical, lack-a-daisical, whimsical.

-ine (Latin -inus, French -in):—
Adamantine, crystalline, divine, Philistine.

-ose, -ous (Latin -osus, French -eux):—
Bellicose, jocose, morose, verbose;
Arduous, callous, delirious, furious;
Of English formation:—
Mischievous, murderous, wondrous.

#### 343. B.—VERBAL SUFFIXES.

-ate. In O.E. verbs were regularly formed on adjectives, as hwit (white), hwitian (to whiten), wearm (warm), wyrman (to warm). In consequence of the loss of the inflexions these verbs became by the fifteenth century identical in form with the adjectives, e.g. to white, to warm, to busy, etc. This use once established, it was only natural; that verbs should also be formed from Latin adjectives without any inflexion, as to clear, to humble, to manifest, and

thus the adjectives adapted from Lat. past participles began generally in the sixteenth century to yield verbs of identical form, e.g. to aggravate, to direct, to separate. This once done, it became the recognised method of englishing a Latin verb to take the past participle stem of the Latin as the present stem of the English.

Examples of English formation: -

Assassinate, camphorate, capacitate, differentiate, fascinate, felicitate, isolate, nobilitate, vaccinate.

-fy (French -fier from Latin -ficare):— Edify, fortify, magnify, qualify.

-ish (French -iss in many forms of the -ir conjugation, as nous finissons, que je finisse):—

Abolish (abolir), cherish (chérir), flourish.

- -ize, -ise (French -iser, Latin -izare from Greek -ίζων):— Agonize, authorize, bowdlerize, civilize, minimize, realize.
- 344. Note.—In some words a change of the suffix has taken place, or the old suffix was no longer understood and a new word has taken its place.
- (1) -if was replaced by -y in the words hasty, jolly. In Middle E. we find both -if and -y, the former representing the French word in its objective case, the latter in the nominative case. Cp. bailly and baillif. On the other hand Wyclif has gyltif together with guilty.—Unprinted English Works (ed. Matthew), p. 9.1
- (2) -ir was replaced by -ure in leisure (O.Fr. leisir), pleasure (plaisir).
  - (3) -wis was replaced by -ous in righteous (O.E. rihtwis).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cp. hussy = O.E. hus-wif, house-wife.

- (4) In *livelihood* we have an instance of popular etymology. In O.E. *liftád* = *lift* life + *lád*, way; the second part was no longer understood, and thus -*lihood* took its place.
- (5) In kindred -red came in, when the second part of the O.E. cynren = a course of descendants, was no longer understood.
- (6) Shamefaced is in O.E. scamfæst; cp. soothfast, steadfast.
- (7) In the words auger, heifer, shelter, what looks like the suffix -er, was an independent substantive. (See p. 338.)

#### CHAPTER XX

#### COMPOSITION

345. Two or more words are joined together to make a single term expressing a new notion, as oak-tree, free-man, sea-sick.

## I.—Substantive Compounds.

- (1) Substantive and Substantive.
- (a) Descriptive, as church-yard, even-tide, head-master, noon-meal, spear-plant.
  - (b) Appositional, as beech-tree, oak-tree.
  - (c) Genitive, as doomsday, kinsman, Tuesday.
  - (d) Accusative, as blood-shedding, man-killer.

Note.—Compounds like Lord-lieutenant, earl-marshal, are of French origin, and in analogy to these were formed a great many quasi-compounds, as Prince-Consort, emperorking, etc. In Middle E. we find knave child = male child, meistres princes (Story of Genesis and Exodus, 3576).

In many compound terms the elements have become changed or obsolete, and are not easily recognized.

ban-dog = Middle E. band-dogge = a dog chained up. barn = O.E. bere-exn = barley-house.

brim-stone = Middle E. bren-stoon = burn -stone.
bridal = O.E. brýd-ealu = bride-ale, i.e. l ride-feast.
gospel = O.E. gód-spell 1 = good "spell," i.e. tidings.
grunsel = Middle E. grund-syl = ground sil.
heifer = O.E. héah-fore = high cow.
hussy = O.E. hús-wif = house wife.
icicle = O.E. is-gicel = ice-jag.
Lammas = O.E. hláf-mæsse = loaf-mass.
nightingale = O.E. nihte-gale = night-sing.er.
auger = O.E. nafe-gár = nave-spear, nave-borer.
nostril = næs-öýrel = nose-hole.
orchard = O.E. ort-geard = herb-garden.
shelter = O.E. scild-truma = shield-troop, guard.
stirrup = O.E. stíg-ráp = climbing rope.

steward = O.E. stig-weard = guardian of cattle, domestic offices, etc.

whitlow = quick-flaw (Scand.) = sore under the nail. i.e. flaw or flaking off of the skin in the neighbourhood of the quick, or sensitive part of the finger round the nail.

- (2) Substantive and Adjective—black-bird, free-man, mid-day, mid-night, mid-summer.
- (3) Substantive and Numeral—fort-night, sen night, twilight.
  - (4) Substantive and Pronoun-self-esteem, self-will.
- (5) Substantive and Verb—Cake-house, grind-stone, pick-pocket, pin-fold, spend-thrift, wash-house.

A substantive is often qualified by another substantive, to which it is joined by a preposition, as man-of-war, will-o'-the-wisp, brother-in-law.

Apparently this word, formed as a literal translation of εὐαγγέλιον, was very early misinterpreted by those who became acquainfed with it in its written form, the first element being supposed to be god "God" instead of god "good." Hence the forms in which the word was borrowed in Old Saxon, Old High German, and Old Norse.

#### II.—Adjective Compounds.

- (1) Substantive and Adjective, in which the substantive has the force of an adverb, as blood-red = red as blood, cone-shaped, eagle-eyed, fire-proof, sea-sick, snow-white.
- (2) Adjective and Substantive, denoting possession, as bare-foot, Longshanks, mad-cap. Cp. O.E. clén-heort = having a clean heart, án-éage = having one eye.

In the corresponding forms the substantive has taken the suffix -ed, as bare-footed, bare-headed, four-footed, one-eyed.

- (3) Participial combinations, in which the participle is the last element.
- (a) Substantive and present participle, in which the first element is the object of the second; as earth-shaking, heart-rending.
- (b) Adjective and present participle, in which the first element is equivalent to an adverb; as deep-musing, fresh-looking, ill-looking.
- (c) Substantive and past participle, as ale-fed, book-learned, death-doomed, earth-born, moth-eaten, sea-torn, wind-fallen,
- (d) Adjective or adverb and past participle, as dead-drunk, dear-bought, fresh-blown, full-fed, high-finished, new-made, well-born.

#### III .- Verbal Compounds.

- 1. Substantive and verb, as back-bite, brow-beat, kiln-dry.
- 2. Adjective and verb, as dumb-found, white-wash.
- 3. Adverb and verb, as back-slide, cross-question, doff (= do off), don (= do on).



#### APPENDIX I

#### I. KELTIC ELEMENT IN MODERN ENGLISH

- 1. Keltic words existing in the oldest English: 1—Bannock, brock (badger), crock (?), glen.
- 2. Keltic words of early introduction still found in English:—

cam (crooked), crag, spigot.

3. Keltic words of recent origin (adopted since the fifteenth century):--

Bard, brogue, clan, claymore (great sword), Druid, fillibeg, gag, garran, pibroch, plaid, shamrock, slab (?), whiskey.

- 4. Keltic words introduced by Norman-French:—
  Barter, barrator, bran (?), gravel, gown, harness, marl.
- II. LATIN ELEMENT IN THE OLDEST ENGLISH.
- A. Latin 3 of the first period.

æstel, Lat. hastula, book-marker ancor, ,, ancora, anchor arc, ,, arca, ark Balsam, ,, balteus, belt ,, balteus, belt

<sup>2</sup> Used by Spenser.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These have no cognates in the other Teutonic dialects.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For the most part popular or Low Latin.

béte,	Lat.	beta, beet-root
bolt,	,,	catapulta (?)
box,	,,	buxus, box-tree
but(e)re,	,,	butyrum, butter
byden,	,,	butina, a bushel
bylege,	,,	bulg(e)a, bulge, bag
bytt,	,,	buttis, bottle
Candel (condel),	,,	candela, candle
cásere,	,,	Cicsar
castel,	• • •	castellum, castle
céac,	,,	caucus, pitcher
cealc,	,,	çalx, plaster, cement
cealu,	,,	calvus, bald
céas,	,,	causa, quarrel castra, fortress, city
ceaster,	,,	castra, fortress, city
cellendre,	,,	coriandrum, coriander
cemes,	,,	camisia, chemise
ceren (cyren),	,,	carenum, sweet wine
cése (cýse),	,,	caseus, cheese
cipe,	,,	cepa, onion
cist,	,,	cista, chest
clústor,	,,	claustrum, lock, bar, cell
cóc,	,,	coquus, cook
comp,	,,	campus, battle
copor,	,,	cuprum, copper
corn-tréow,	,,	cornus, cornel-tree
crycc,	,,	crucea, crutch
cuclere,	,,	cochlear, spoon
culter.	,,	culter, coulter, dagger
cweartern,	,,	quartarium, prison
cycene,	,,	coquina, kitchen
cylle,	,,	culleus, flagon, vessel
cyln,	,,	culina, kiln
cymen,	,,	cuminum, cummin
cyrfet,	,,	cucurbita, gourd
cyrse,	,,	cerasus, cherry
Disc,	,,	discus, dish
draca,	,,	draco, dragon
Eced.	,,	acetum, vinegar
ele,	,,	oleum, oil
elpend (ylpend),	,,	elephas, elephant
Féfer,	,,	<i>febris</i> , fever
fíc,		ficus, fig
fifle,	,,	fibula, buckle
force,	••	furca, fork
fullere,	,,	fullo, fuller
Lacu (?),	"	fullo, fuller lacus, pond
læfel.	,,	labellum, bowl, vessel
lilige,	,,	lilium, lily
G · /		•

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stán. Lat. marmor, marble mealwe. ,, malva, mallow meregreot, " margarita, pearl míl, " milia, mile minte, ,, mentha, mint mixian (?), ,, miscere, mix mortere, ", mortarium, mortar múl. ,, mulus, mule

munt. ,, mons, mount mydd. ., modius, bushel myln, ,, molina, mill . mynet, ,, moneta, coin mýse (mése), ,, mensa, table naép, ,, napus, turnip, ombor. ,, amphora

Orc. ,, orca, cup, tankard

orel. ,, orarium (orale), garment, veil

ostre, " ostrea, oyster Pál. ,, palus, pale, stake pæll. ,, pallium, pall páwa. ,, pavo, peacock persoc. ,, persica, peach peru (pere), " pirum, pear ,, pix, pitch pic.

,, pecten, part of a loom pihten, " pilum, a stick with a point píl.

pilece, ,, pellicium, pelisse ,, piper, pepper pipor, pisu, " pisum, pea " planta, plant plant. plaster, ,, emplastrum, plaster plúme, ,, pluma, plum, or plýme, " plumea, plum plúm-febere, ,, pluma, down popig, ,, papaver, poppy porr, " porrum, leek ,, porta, gate port,

,, porticus, porch post, ,, postis, post, pedestal ,, fondus, pound pund. pytt. ,, puteus, pit rædic. ,, radix, radish Rose, ,, rosa, rose ,, saccus, sack-cloth Sæcc. ,, sacerdos, priest sacerd.

sæp, ,, sapa, sap

portic.

sæternesdæg, ,, Saturni dies, Saturday ,, scamellum, foot-stool sceamol.

scrin. Lat. scrinium, shrine ,, saltare, to dance sealtian. séam, ,, sagma, horse-load ,, signum, banner segn. ,, sinapi (?), mustard senep, ,, sericum, silk seolc. ,, sextarius, a measure sester. ,, secula, sickle sicol, sicor, ,, securus, sicker, safe " soccus, sock SOC. sollere, " solarium, upper room ,, spelta, spelt spelt. ,, strata, street stræt. ,, sutor, cobbler sútere, ,, tegula, tile Tígele, trifot, " tributum, tribute ,, tabula, table tæfl. ,, turris, tower torr. ,, trimissis, a coin trims, " tructa, trout truht. tunic. ,, tunica, tunic ,, vallum, wall weall. wíc, ,, vicus, dwelling ,, vinum, wine win. ,, uncia, inch vnce.

## III. LATIN OF THE SECOND PERIOD (CHURCH LATIN).

Abbod. ancra. antefn. apostol. basilisca. biscop. calend. calic. ,, canon, capitol, capitola, chor, créda. Cristen. démon. díacon. déofol, discipul, ælmesse. fers,

mæsse.

Lat. abbas, abbot

anachoreta, anchoret, hermit

,, antiphonia, anthem

,, apostolus ,, basiliscus, basilisk

" episcopus, bishop " calendae, calends

calix, chalice canonicus, canon

capitulum, chapter chorus, choir

credo, creed

Christianus, Christian damon, demon diaconus, deacon diabolus, devil

discipulus, disciple eleemosyna, alms versus, verse missa, mass

munuc. Lat. monachus, monk " monasterium, minster mynster, nunne, ,, nonna, nun ,, nona, noon ,, offerre, to offer ,, organum, organ nón. offrian, organe, ", organum, organ
", palma, palm
", papa, pope
", epistola, epistle
", presbyter, priest
", predicare, preach
", pinma, prime
", psalmus, psalm
", psalterium, salter
" regula, rule
", sanctus, saint
", schola, school
", templum, temple palm, pápa, pistol, préost, predician, prím, salm. • saltere, regol, sanct, scól. tempel.

#### IV. SCANDINAVIAN ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH.

loft, anger, askew, awe. Bait, bark, bask, beck, billow, blunder (?), blunt (?), bole, brink, brunt (?), busk. Carp, cast, clip, clumsy, cur. Dairy, dash, daze, dazzle, drag, drip, droop. Fell, fellow, flake, flear, flit, flush, fond, fro. Gabble, gaby, gait, gale, gasp, gaze, glance, gloss, grovel, guess, gust. Ill, inkling. Keg, ken, kidnap, kill, kirtle. Leak, lee, leg, loft, luncheon, lurk. Mane, maze, meek, muck. Nag, nasty, niggard. Odd, outlaw. Pedlar, prate. Raid, raise, ransack, rife, rug, rump, ruth Scant, scare, scrap, shrug, skald, skin, sky, sledge, sly, sneer, stag, swain, sway.

# V. FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN.

Tackle, larn, their, thrall, thrive, thrust, till. Wad, wand, weak, wherry (?), whitlow, window.

"The French or Frankish language is now a Romanic dialect, and its grammar is but a blurred copy of the

lecher,

grammar of Cicero. But its dictionary is full of Teutonic words, more or less Romanized to suit the pronunciation of the Roman inhabitants of Gaul."—MAX MÜLLER.

ambassador. Goth. and-bahts, O.E. ambeht, O.H.Ger. ampaht, Lat. ambactus, a servant, O.Fr. ambassadeur. Ger. hakenbüchse. Dutch haak-bus, O.Fr. harquearquebuss. buse, Fr. arquebuse. O.E. tir, O.H.Ger. ziari, Ger zier, O.Fr. tire. attire, M. H. Ger. balderich, girdle, belt, O.F. baldrei, balbaldric. dret, baudrei. O. H. Ger. palcho, O. N. balkr, M. Lat. balco, Fr. balcony, balcon, Eng. balk. Mid. H. Ger. berc-vrit, ber-vrit, M. Lat. berfredus. belfry, belfredus, O.Fr. berfroit, belefroi, a watchtower. bivouac. O.H.Ger. bî-wacha, O.Fr. bivouac, biouac. brand, brandish, O.N. brandt, O.E. brand, sword, O.Fr. brant. chamberlain, O.H.Ger, kamarling, O.Fr. chambrelenc, chambrelain. Goth. kiusan, O.E. ccosan, Ger. kiesen, Fr. choice, choisir, to choose. Ger. tanz, O.N. dans, O.Fr. danse, dance. dance. enamel, O.N. smelta, Ger. schmelzen, to melt, whence M. Lat. smaltum, It. smalto, O. Fr. esmal, esmail. O.H.Ger. sciuhan, Ger. scheuen, O.Fr. eschiver, eschew. eskiver. O.H.Ger. warnon, O.E. wearnian, to warn; garnish, O.Fr. warnir, guarnir, provide, supply. O.H.Ger. wart, O.E. weard, O.Fr. guarde. guard, M. Latin wider-donum, a hybrid compound from guerdon, O. H. Ger. widar, against, back, again, and Lat. donum, the whole being formed after O. H. Ger. widar-lon, O.E. wider-léan, a recompense. O.E. wile, O.F. guile, guille. guile, O.E. wise, O.H.Ger. wisa; modern Eng. wise (as guise, in likewise), O.Fr. guise; cp. O.Fr. desguiser = to disguise. Goth, haims, O.E. ham, home, Fr. hamel, hameau. hamlet. O.H.Ger. hals-berc, O.E. heals-beorg, O.Fr. halhauberk. berc, hauberc, haubert. O. H. Ger. heri-walt, heriolt, O. Fr. heralt, heraut. herald, Ger. landsknecht. lansquenet, O.H.Ger. lecchôn, O.E. liccian, to lick, G.Fr.

lichier, lecher, whence O. Fr. lecheor, a lecher.1

<sup>1</sup> Relish is from the same source.

march, marches, O. H. Ger. marcha, O. E. mearc (boundary, border). O. Fr. marce, marche, marshal, O.H.Ger. marah-scalh (marah, horse, scalh, servant), O. Fr. marescal, mareschal. pouch, poke, pocket, O.E. pocca, poha, bag, Fr. poche. poach. O.E. cocer, O.H.Ger. kohhar, Ger. köcher, O.Fr. quiver, couire, cuivre. rifle (spoil, rob), O.N. hrifa, O. Fr. riffler. ring, harangue, range, arrange, O.H.Ger. hring, ring. O. H. Ger. raubôn, O. E. réafian, O. Fr. rober. rob. O. H. Ger. roub, O. E. reaf, Fr. robe. robe. seize. O. H. Ger. sazzan, to put in possession, Ger. setzen, O.Fr. saisir, seisir. O. Fr. senescal, seneschal, no doubt from a Teutonic seneschal, word sina-skalks (old servant), which, however, is not found. skiff. O.E. scip, Ger. schiff, Fr. esquif, whence equip, O.Fr. esquiper. connected with Eng. slit, O. H. Ger. slizan; O. Fr. slate, esclat, O.E. skiat, slate. O. H. Ger. spehôn, O. Fr. espier. spy (to), O. H. Ger. dwahila, twahila, O. Fr. toialle, touialle. towel. O.E. wed, Goth, wadi, O.H.Ger, wetti, M.Lat, wage, gage, vadium.

wait (await),

wicket.

guaite, watch; O.H.Ger. wahten, O.Fr. gaiter, guiater, to wait. O.E. wic, O.N. vik, bight, haven, O.Fr. wiket,

O.H.Ger. wahta, Ger. waht, O.Fr. waite, gaite,

guischet.

## APPENDIX II

# OUTLINES OF O. AND MIDDLE E. ACCIDENCE

## DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES, &c.

#### FIRST PERIOD OF THE LANGUAGE.

## (A.) Vowel Stems.1

## I. MASCULINE.

dwg, day; hirde, shepherd; gwest (giest, gyst), guest; sunu, son; wudu, wood.

	a Stem.	ја Ѕтем.	i Stem.	u Sti	EM.
Sing	N. dæg G. dæges D. dæge A. dæg I. dæg-e	hirde hirdes hirde hirde hirde	gæst gæstes gæste gæst gæste	sunu suna suna sunu	wudu wuda, wudcs wuda, wude wudu
Pl	N. dagas G. daga D. dagum A. dagas	hirdas hirda hirdum hirdas	gæstas gæsta gæstum gæstas	suna suna sunum suna	wuda(s) wuda wudum wuda(s)
GOTHIC.					
Sing	N. dags G. dagis D. daga A. dag	hairdeis hardeis hairdja hairdi	gastš gastis gasta gast	sunus sunaus sunau sunu	

<sup>1</sup> These are arranged according to their original stem-endings, in -a (older -o), -i, -u; dwg (orig. stem, daga), gwst (orig. stem, gasti), sunu, &c.

		a Stem.	ja Stem.	i Stem.	u Stem
Pl.	 N.		hairdjôs	gasteis	sunjus
	G.	dagê	hairdjê	gastê	suniwê
	D.	dagam	hairdjam	gastim	sunum
	A.	dagans	hairdjans	gastins	sununs

## 2. FEMININE.

giju, gift ; dád, deed ; hand ; duru, door.

		$\bar{a}$ Stem.	i Stem.	u Ste	EM.
Sing.	•••	N. gifu G. gife D. gife A. gife I. gife	dréd dæde dæde dæd(e) dæde	hand handa handa hand	duru dura (dure) dura, duru duru
Pl.	•••		dæda dæda dædum dæda	handa handa handum handa	
		(	COTHIC.		
Sing.	•••	N. giba G. gibôs D. gibai A. giba	dêds dêdais dêdai dêd	handus handaus handau handu	
Pl.		N. gibôs G. gibô D. gibôm A. gibôs	dêdeis dêdê dêdim dêdins	handjus handiwe handum handuns	

## 3. NEUTER.

word; fet, vat; cynn, kinn; gedyre, door-frame; no -u stems.

			a Stem.	ja Steм.	i Stem.
Sing.	•	N. word G. worde D. worde A. worde I. worde	fæte fæt	cynne cynn	gedyre gedyres gedyre gedyre gedyre
Pl.	•••	N. word G. worda D. worda A. word		cynn cynna n cynnum cynn	gedyru gedyra gedyrum gedyru

# GOTHIC.

			GOTTILC.	
		a STEM.		ја Етем.
Sing.		waurd		kuni
	G.	waurdis		kunjis
	D.	waurda		kunja
	A.	waurd		kuni
Pl.	 N.	waurda		∗kunja kunjê
	G.	waurdê		kunjê
	D.	waurdam		kunjam
	A.	waurda		kunja

# (B.) Consonant Stems.

# (1) -N STEMS.

MASC.			FEM.	NEUT.	
Sing.		N. hana	tunge	éage	
•		G. hanan	tungan	éagan	
		D. hanan	tungan	éagan	
		A. hanan	tungan	éage	
Pl.		N. hanan	tungan	éagan	
		G. hanena	tungena	éagena	
		D. hanum	tungum	éagum	
		A. hanan	tungan	éagan	

## GOTHIC.

Sing.		D.	hana hanins hanin hanan	tuggô tuggôns tuggôn tuggôn	augtô augtins augtin augtô
Pl,	•••	N. G. D. A.	hanans hananê hanam hanas	tuggôns tuggônô tuggôm tuggôns	augtôna augtanê augtam augtôna

# (2) -R STEMS.

Sing.		PL.	
N. fæder G. fæder, fæderes D. fæder A. fæder	bróðor bróðor bréðer bróðor	fæderas fædera fæderum fæderas	bróðru bróðra bróðrum bróðru
		,	

## GOTHIC.

Sing.	PL.
N. brôþar	brôþrjus
G. brôbrs	brô <b>þrê</b>
D. brôþr	brôþrum
A. brôþar	brôþruns

VARIOUS CONS.-STEMS, FORMING PLURALS BY VOWEL CHANGE.

- (1) fem. :-
- Bbc, book, burh, borough liss, louse, miss, mouse, giss, goose; plurals (nom. and acc.):--

Béc, byrig, lys, mys, gés.

- (2) masc. :-
- Fit, foot, till, tooth, man, man; plurals:-

Fit. tes, men.

This vowel change occurs also in the dative singular, and is due to the presence of an i in the lost flexional syllable of the forms in which it is found; the plurals were originally bbkiz, burgiz, etc.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

#### I. VOWEL DECLENSION.

In the Second period of the language traces of the original vowel-stems disappear, and substantives once belonging to this class are declined according to gender. In the following table the case-suffixes are given for comparison with the older forms:—

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	 N.			
	G.	-es	-e	-es
	D.	<b>-e</b>	-e	-e
	Α.		-e (-en)	
Pl.	N.	-es	-e, -en (-es)	-es
	G.	-e, -en, -ene (-es)	-e, -en, -ene (-es)	-e, -en, -ene(-es)
	1).	-en, -e (-es)	-en <b>, -</b> e (- <b>e</b> s)	-en <b>, -</b> e (-es)
	A.	-es	-e, -en (-es)	-es

- (1) Gen. sing. fem.—Some few feminine substantives form their genitives (like masc. and neuters) in -es instead of -e.
- (2) Nom. plural fem.—The suffix -es begins to replace -e, -en, as dedes, mihtes, sinnes, &c.
- (3) Nom. plural neuter.—Many neuters, originally having no suffix in the plural, now take -es, as londes, huses, wordes, workes, thinges, though the original uninflected forms are

frequently met with as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.

Deer, sheep, horse, &c., as in modern English, remain without inflexion.

Many substantives originally forming the plural in -u, have -e or -en (and sometimes -es), as richen, riche (kingdoms), trewe, trewen (trees), &c.

- (4) Gen. plural. —The old suffix -a is now represented by -e, -en; and also by -ene (the gen. plural of n declension).
- (5) Dat. plural.—The old suffix -um has become -en and -e, and occasionally -es.

IIIN DECLENSION	11.	-N	DECLENSION
-----------------	-----	----	------------

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N	e	-e	-e
_	G	en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)
	D	en, -e	-en, -e	-en, -e
	А	en, -e	-en, -e	-e
Pl.	N	en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)
	G	ene (-en)	-ene (-en)	-ene (-en)
	D. •	en, -e	-en, -e	-en, -e
	А	en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)

In the gen. plural -enen sometimes occurs for -ene.

#### III. R DECLENSION.

- (1) Brother, moder, dohter, suster, have no inflexion in the genitive singular. Fader and faderes (gen. sing.) are found in writers of this period.
- (2) The nom. plurals are in -e, -en, or -es, as brethre, brothre, sustre, dohtre, &c.; brethren, brothren, dohtren, dehtren, sustren, &c.; faderes, brothres, dohtres, sostres, &c.
- (3) The gen. plural -ene (-enne) sometimes disappears altogether. "His dohter namen" = the names of his daughters (Lazamon)

(4) The dat. plural ends in -en, -e (and sometimes -es).

Note:—In the *Ormulum -es* occurs as the genitive singular of substantives of all genders.

The nom. plural is ordinarily -es, and even deor (deer) makes plural deoress.

The gen. plural ends mostly in -es, rarely in -e, as "aller kinge king" = king of all kings.

#### IV. PLURALS FORMED BY VOWEL CHANGE.

Fêt (fat), men, &c.; bêc (bac) is occasionally found side by side with bokes.

#### THIRD PERIOD.

- I. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.
- (1) -es (-is, -ys), without distinction of gender.
- (2) Very many plurals in -en, -n, are still preserved, representing (a) old plurals in -an of the n declension, (b) plurals originally ending in -a, -u—(a) chirchen (churches); ezen, eien (eyes); ben (bees); fon (foes); oxen, &c.; (b) honden (hands), sinnen (sins), develen (devils), heveden (heads), modren (mothers), sostren (sisters), brobren, ken (kin), &c.

Plurals in e are not rare, as blostme (blossoms), dede (deeds), mile (miles), childre (and childer), brebre (breber), &c.

- (3) Many words have no plural inflexion, as hus, hous, hors, schep, deer, pound, her (hair); but horses, poundes, and haires occur in this period.
- (4) Plurals formed by vowel change:—fet, tep, ges, ky, hend hands).
  - 2. CASE ENDINGS.
- (1) Case-endings are reduced to two, genitive and dative.

- (2) The gen. sing. for the most part ends in -es (-is, -ys); it is not always added to feminine substantives, as "the guene fader" (Robt. of Gloucester, l. 610); "the empresse sone" (Ib. l. 9708).
- (3) The *gen. plural* ends in *-es*, and sometimes in *-enc* (*-en*), as *clerkene*, of clerks, *monkene*, of monks (Robt. of Gloucester).
- (4) The *dative sing*, is often denoted by a final -e: nom. god, dat. gode.
  - (5) The dative plural is mostly like the nom. plural.

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

- I. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.
- (1) The plural suffix is -es (-is, -ys, -us).

In Romance words -s, -z, occurs for -es, &c.

- (2) Plurals in -en are (a) ashen, been (bees), eyen, hosen, oxen,<sup>2</sup> pesen,<sup>3</sup> shoon, ton (toes), belonging to n declension, (b) sustren, daughtren, brethren (r declension); (c) children, calveren, eyren (eggs), lambren (with r inserted before en), originally forming plural in -u; kin, ken, kien for cy, ky dester (daughters).
- (3) Some neuter plurals have no s, as 3eer, heer (hair) hors, hous, scheep, pownde, swyn, thing.
  - (4) After numerals the plural inflexion is often dropped.
- (5) Plurals with vowel change:—fet, gees, lys, mys, mees, men, &c.

3 Peses occurs in Piers Plowman.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This suffix is unknown in the Northern dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Oxis occurs in Wickliffe, Luc. xvii. 7.

<sup>4</sup> Calues, egges, and lambes are also met with.

#### 2. CASE ENDINGS.

- (1) The gen. sing. ends in -es (-is, -ys), -s.
- (2) The gen. plural terminates in -es.
- (3) The old genitive plural suffix -ene is still met with, as childrene, clerkene, kyngene (Piers Plowman).<sup>1</sup>

# ADJECTIVES.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

1. STRONG (or INDEFINITE) DECLENSION.

		Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	blind	blindu	blind
	G.	blindes	blindre	blindes
	D.	blindum	blindre	blindum
	A.	blindne	blinde	blind
	I.	blinde	—	blind
Pl.	N.	blinde	blinde	blindu
	G.	blindra	blindra	blindra
	D.	blindum	blindum	blindum
	A.	blinde	blinde	blindu
		GC	THIC.	
Sing.	N.	blinds	blinda	blind(ata)
	G.	blindis	blindaizôs	blindis
	D.	blindamma	blindai	blindamma
	A.	blindana	blinda	blind(ata)
Pl.	N.	blindai	blindôs	blinda
	G.	blindaizê	blindaizô	blindaizê
	• D.	blindaim	blindaim	blindaim
	A.	blindans	blindôs	blinda

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Very rarely used by Chaucer.

#### 2. WEAK (or DEFINITE) DECLENSION.

	MASC.	<b>ГЕМ.</b>	NEUT.
Sing.	 N. blinda	blinde	blinde
Ü	G. blindan	blindan	bl <b>in</b> dan
	D. blindan	blindan	blindan
	A. blindan	blindan	blinde

## MASC., FEM., and NEUT.

Pl.	N.	blindan
	G.	blindena
	D.	blindum
	Α.	blindan

#### GOTHIC.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. blinda	blindô	<b>blind</b> ô
J	G. blindins	blindôns	blindins
	D. blindin	blindôn	b <b>lin</b> din
	A. blindan	blindôn	blindô
Pl.	N. blindans	blindôns	<b>blind</b> ôna
	G. blindanê	blindônô	blindanê
	D. blindam	blindô <b>m</b>	blindam
	A. blindans	blindôns	blindôna

#### SECOND PERIOD.

#### 1. STRONG DECLENSION.

Sing.	Masc N. blind G. blindes D. blinde A. blindne	FEM. blind blindre (blinde) blindre (blinde) blinde	NEUT. blind blindes blinde blind
	11. Dimane	omiac	D

Pl. of all gend. N. blinde

G. blindere (blinde)
D. blinden (blind)
A. blinde.

2. In the weak or definite declension -an becomes (1) -e'', (2) e.

All cases of the sing, are often denoted by the final.e. The plural ends in -en or -e.

In the *Ormulum* all the older inflexions of both declensions are represented by e.

#### THIRD PERIOD.

In the Third period the older adjectival inflexions are represented by a final -e, and even this sometimes is dropped.

In Robert of Gloucester and the Ayenbite we sometimes find the accusative in -ne of the strong declension. In the Ayenbite we find dative plural in -en, in indefinites like one, other.

The plural of adjectives (mostly of Romanic origin) sometimes terminates in -es, especially when the adjective follows the noun, as wateres principales. Robert of Gloucester has "foure godes sones," "the godes knystes."

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

A final e marks (a) the plural, (b) the definite form, of the adjective.

Plurals in s are common, as in the previous period.

#### PRONOUNS.

#### I. Personal Pronouns

#### FIRST PERIOD.

	F	irst Person.	Second Person.
Sing.		N. Ic	ðú
		G. mín	ðín
		D. mé	ðé
		A. mec, mé	ðec, ðé
Pl.		N. wé	gé
		G. úser, úre	gé éower
		D. ús	ćow
•		A. ús, úsic	éow, éowic
Dual		N. wit	git
		G. uncer	incer
		D. unc	incer
		A. uncit. unc	incit, inc

#### GOTHIC.

		0.0	11110.	
	Sing.	FIRST PER N. ik G. mei	]	ID PERSON. oû beina
	Pl. Dual	D. mis A. mik N. weis G. unsa D. unsi A. unsi N. wit	ira j kra i k i k s i ara (=unkara) i s i	pus puk us zwara zwis zwis 1
Sing.	N.	ECOND PERIOD. Ich, ic, ihc min	THIRD PERIOD ich, ik, I	FOURTH PERIOD.
Pl.	D. A. N. G.	me me we ure us, ous	me me we ure us, ous	mc me we  us
Dual	N. G. D.	us, ous wit unker unc, unk	us, ous  	us
Sing.	A. N. G. D. A.	be	þu, þou² — þe	þou  þe
Pl.	N. G.	3e coure, cur, cwr, eow, ew ow, 3uw, 3eow	``	
Dual	N. G.	3it		u you, 50w, vow

<sup>1</sup> Wanting.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In some Southern texts we find pe = pou.

be mi3t be proute.—Beues of Hamptoun (E.E.T.S.), l. 531.

And in pe letter pe schelt saie.—Ibid. 1233. Cp. also 1506, 3728.

pow art nou3t wis ase pe holdest pe.—Reinbroun, 20, 5.

Sire, pe mi3t me leue.—Ibid. 47, 3. Cp. Ayenbite of Inwil, p. 54.

The dual is found as late as 1280, as in Havelok the Dane.

The older genitives *min*, *thin*, as early as La3amon's time began to be employed only as possessive adjectives; *ure*, *covere*, *eouer*, *3ure*, are mostly formed with indefinite pronouns, as *ure ech* = each of us, *3ure nan* = none of us; but the partitive form *ech of us* is also in use at this period.

For other changes see Personal Pronouns, pp. 176 ff.

## II. Pronouns of the Third Person.

# FIRST PERIOD.

Sing	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
	N. hé	héo	hit
	G. his	hire	his
	D. him	hire	him
	A. hine	hi	hit
	N. hí (hig) G. hira (heora) D. him (heom) A. hi (hig)		

Gothic has no hi stem.

		SECOND PERIOD.	THIRD PERIOD.	FOURTH PERIOD.
Masc.		N. He, ha	He, ha, a	He, a
		G. His	His	His
		D. Him	Him	Him
		A. Hine, hin, him	Him (hine)	Ifin:
Fem.	•••	N. Hi, heo, hie, he, 5e, 5eo, 5ho, sca 1	Heo, hi, sco, sche, zy, sge	Hue, heo, ho, sche, scho
		G. Hire, heore, here	Hire	Hire (hir)
		D. Hire, heore, here	Hire	Hire (hir)
		A. Hi, heo, hie, hire (his, hes, es)	Hi (his, is), hire	Hire
Neut.		N. Hit (it)	Hit (it)	Hit (it)
		G. His	, Hit (it) His <sup>2</sup>	His, hit
		D. Him	Him	Him (it)
		A. Hit (it)	Hit (it)	Hit (it)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Scw occurs in Saxon Chronicle (Stephen); sco, scho is a Northern form; sche a Midland variety of it; and ho is West Midland.

<sup>2</sup> Mostly used adjectively.

SECOND PERIOD.

Pl. N. His, heo, hei, he, ha, þe53, þei, þai

G. Hire, heore, here, the 53re

D. Heom, hem, ham, bezzm

A. Hi, heo, hie, heom, 5am (his, hes)

THIRD PERIOD.

Hi, hii, heo, hue, he, thei, thai
Heore, here, her, hir. hare, bair

Heore, here, her, hir, hare, bair Heom, hem, ham, bam, hom

Hi, hii, hem (hise, is), pam, hom

FOURTH PERIOD.

Hii, 2 be, bai, tha
(hii), a

Here, her, hir,

thair, thar Hem, tham, hom

Hem, tham, þem

- (1) In the Third period the gen. plural is used with indefinite pronouns, as here non (none of them), here cyther (each of them), &c.
- (2) The accusatives (singular and plural) begin in the Second period to be replaced by dative forms, but the old accusative (hine) is found in the Ayenbite (1340), and is still in use in the South of England under the form -en.
- (3) The Northern dialects (and those with Northern peculiarities) replace the plural of the stem hi by the plural of the definite article.
- (4) In the South of England a = he is still preserved. In Lancashire he is used for she.

## III. Reflexive Fronouns.

(1) In the First period *silf* (self) was declined as an adjective along with personal pronouns, as—

N. Ic silfa; G. min silfes; D. me silfum; A. mec (me) silfne, &c.

- (2) Sometimes the dative of the personal pronoun was added to the nom. of silf, as ic mé silf; vú vé silf; hé him silf; wé ús silfe; gé écow silfe; hi him silfe.
- (3) Silf also stands with a substantive, as God silf = God himself.

2 Rare

<sup>1</sup> Hie and he are East Midland forms; hue, Southern (used by Trevisa).

- (4) With a demonstrative, silf was declined according to the weak or definite declension, as se silfa = the same.
- (5) In the Second period (as in La3.) the genitive shows a tendency to replace the dative, as mi silf for me silf, but it is not common; and in all other cases the old form is preserved.
- (6) In the Third and Fourth periods mi self, thi self, our self, &c. become more frequently used: Wickliffe has instances of the older forms, as we us silf, ze zou self, as well as of we our self, ze zoure self. His self occurs in Northern English of the Third period.
- (7) Self is sometimes lengthened to selven in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, as I miselven, he him selven (Chaucer).

IV. Adjective Pronouns.

(1) The possessives in the First period—min (my),  $\delta in$ (thy), his (his, its), hire (her), úre (our), éower (your), hira, heora (their), uncer (our two), incer (your two).

Sin is found in poetry as a reflexive possessive of the

third person.

(2) In the Second period the possessives are—First person, min (sing.), unker (dual), ure (plural). person, thin (sing), inker, zunker (dual), eowre, eoure, zure (plural). Third person, his, hire (sing.), hire, here, heore, thezzre (plural).

## Min is thus declined:—

	FIRST PERIOD.	SECOND PERIOD.		
Sing.	MASC. FEM.  N. mín mín G. mínes mínra D. minum mínre A. mínne míne	min, mi mines, min	FEM. mine, min, mi mire, mine, min, mi mire, mine, min, mi mine, min, mi	
P1.	N. mine	mine, min, mi		

mire, mine D. mínum

minnen, mine, min

A. míne mine

Thin is similarly declined.

Ure is declined as follows in the First period:

	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	 N. úser, úre	úser, úrc	úser, úre
	G. úscres, ússes, úres	úserre, ússe, úrre	same as masc.
	D. úserum, ússum, úrum A. úserne, úrne	úserre, ússe, úrre úsere, ússe, úre	úser, úre
Pl.	 N. úsere, ússe, úre	-	úser, úre, &c.
	G. úsera, ússa, úre	****	same as masc.
	D. úserum, ússum, úrum		,,
	A. úsere, ússe, ûre	See and the second	ús <b>er, úr</b> e

In the Second period we sometimes find *ure* and *eower* (3*ure*) inflected like adjectives of the strong declension, as "*Ures formes faderes* gult" = the guilt of our first father (Moral Ode).

- (a) As mine and thine are the plural of min and thin, so in the Second and Third periods hise is the plural of his.
- (b) Hire (her) is generally uninflected. Lazamon has plural hires, as "hires leores" = her cheeks.
- (c) In the *Ormulum* we find genitive the33res, as "till e33perr pe33res herrte" = to the hearts of them both.
- (3) In the Third period the dual forms disappear, and the possessives are—min, thin, his, hire, our, oure, 30ure, here, thair; absolute possessives—oures, urs; 30ures, yhoures; thaires, thairs, as well as oure, ure; 30ure, here. In some southern texts we find me = mi, pe, pi:—

Beues of Hamptoun, 11. 1128 (me fader), 2283 (me brober), 1272 (be lord), 1422 (be fet).

Reinbroun, Il. 13, 7 (me chaumber), 19, 7 (me beste consailer), 19, 8 (pe per), 20, 10 (pe consaile).

The plurals mine, thine, hise, &c. are in use.

(4) In the Fourth period we find plural hise; and ources, youres, heres, hores (theirs), are more commonly used than in the Third period.

#### V. Demonstrative Pronouns.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. se	séo	ðæt
	G. ðæs	ðære	same as maso
	D. ðám, þém	ðære	,,
	A. Jane, bone	ðá	ðæt
	I. ðý, þé	ðá	same as maso
	•		
Pl. (of	all genders) N. 8á		
	G. ðára, ð	Séra	
	D. đám, č	Sæm	

A. ðá

## GOTHIC.

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	•••	N. sa G. þis	sô þizôs	þata as masc.
		D. þamma A. þana	þizai Þô	þata ,
P1.		N. þai G. þizê D. þaim	þôs þizô þaim	þô as masc.
		A. pans	þôs	þô ''

In the SECOND PERIOD we find se replaced by the; and often all inflexions are dropped, so that we get an uninflected the as in Modern English.

#### MASCULINE.

Singular.

N. þe, þa

G. bres, bas, bes, beos, bis, be

D. þan, þon, þane, þone, þonne, þenne, þen, þa, þe A. þene, þane, þæne, þene, þanne, þone, þon, þe

. I. þe

The old Kentish dialect of the thirteenth century is more archaic than other Southern dialects, and has se (m.), si (fem.), thet, that (n.).

"Nu lordinges þis is þe miracle þet þet gospel of te daí us telþ. 2c great is þe tokningge. Se leprus signifieþ þo senuulle men. si lepre þo sennen. þet scab bitokned þo litle sennen, si lepre betokned þo grete sennen þet biedh diadliche."

"This is si glorius miracle."

"This is si signifiance of the miracle."

"po seide pe lord to his sergant."

"Of po holi gost; in pa time."1

#### FEMININE.

Singular.

N. þeo, þa, þie, þe, þo G. þare, þære, þere, þer, þe D. þare, þære, þere, þe

A. þa, þeo, þe, þo

#### NEUTER.

Singular. N. and A. pat, bæt, bet, be

G. and D. as masculine

Plural.

N. pa, po, paie, pe G. pare, pere, per

D. þan, þon, þen, þane, þæn, þeon, þa, þe

A. paie, po, pe

In the *Ormulum* and other Midland writers the gender of *that* is forgotten, and it is used as a demonstrative pronoun as at present.

In the THIRD PERIOD the article is for the most part flexionless in the singular: though Southern writers, as Robert of Gloucester, Dan Michel (in Ayenbite), &c. preserve some of the older forms, as acc. masc. tha-ne, the-n.

"Zueche yeares driue) pane dyevel uram pe herte as pet weter cachchep pane hond out of pe kechene."—Ayenbite, p. 171.2

The Kentish of 1340 also preserves the fem. po.

The fem. gen. and dat. thare (ther) is employed by Shoreham, as "thare saule galle" = the gall of the soul (Shoreham's Poems, p. 92); "one thare crybbe" (Ib. p. 157).

2 herte is fem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Kentish Sermons, in O.E. Miscellany (ed. Morris).

The older dative -n (O.E. -m) is preserved in such expressions as "for the nonce" (Middle E. for pan anes): cp. Middle E. atten ende = at then ende (Robt. of Gloucester); "atter spousynge" (Shoreham, p. 57); atter=at ther = at the (fem.).

In the FOURTH PERIOD the plural po is still in use; but the singular is uninflected.

That, plural tho (=those), are demonstratives.

Skelton uses *tho* = those: "Alle *tho* that were on my partye."

ves, veos, vis, this.

FIRST I	ERIOD.
---------	--------

	M.		F.	N.
Singular,	ซีes ซีises ซีisum ซีisne		ზéos ზisse ზisse ზás	ðis ðises ðisum ðis
	 Plural.	N. G. D. A.		(1.5

In the SECOND PERIOD we find the following forms:-

		M.	F.	N.
Sing.		bisses, bisse, bis	has, beos, his, hos hissere, hisse hissere, hisse has, hæs	þis as masc. þis
Plural.	N. a	and A. bas, beos, bos	, þes, þese, þis, þise	

D. bissen, bisse, beos

In the Ormulum, this has no inflexions except plural pise.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Northern forms.

In the THIRD PERIOD this is flexionless in the singular: 1 we find in the plural thes, this, thise, these.

In the Avenbite we find in the singular nom. masc. this, acc. masc. therne (= thesne), acc. fem. thise, dat. thisen, thise, Shoreham has dat. sing. and pl. thyssere.2

In the FOURTH PERIOD we have sing. this, pl. thise, this, thes, these.

In the Northern dialects we find ther, thir, the plural of the Old Norse definite article, used for these 3:-

> " Alle mans lyfe casten may be Principally in this partes thre, That er thir to our understanding, Bygynnyng, midward, and endyng. Ther thre parties er thre spaces talde Of the lyf of ilk man yhung and alde," HAMPOLE, P. of C.

It is used by James I. in his Essayes in Poesie (ed. Arber, p. 70):

' Thir are thy workes."

## VI. Interrogative Pronouns.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

H	wá.	who.
п	wa.	wno.

•		MASC.	AND	FEM.
Singular,	N.	hwá		
	G.	hwæs		
	D.	hwám.	hwat	m

A.

I. hwí

hwám, hwám

hwone, hwæne

NEUT. hwæt hwæs hwam hwæt

hwí

## GOTHIC.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
N.	hwas	hwô	hwa
G.	hwis	hwizôs	as masc
D.	hwamma	hwizai	,,
A.	hwana	hwô	hwa
			hwê

<sup>1</sup> We find sometimes thisne acc. sing. in some Southern writers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Trevisa, 1357, has nom. masc. pes, fem. peos (pues), pl. peos, pues. 3 In the O.N. pl. their (masc.), ther (fem.), than (neut.); r=1 (sign of plural).

In the SECOND PERIOD we find the following forms:-

		MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Singular.	N.	hwa, whæ, wa, wha, wo	hwat, hwet, what, what
	G.	hwas, whes, was, whas	as masc.
	D.	hwam, whan	,,
	Λ.	hwan, wan, hwam, whan, wham	hwat, whæt,

In the *Ormulum* we find *what* used irrespective of gender, as *what* man, *what* thing, &c.

In the THIRD PERIOD the dative replaces the old accusative.

		MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Singular.	N.	wha, who, huo, wo, ho, quo	what, wat, huet, quat
	G,	whas, whos, wos, quas	as masc.
ני	1).	whom, wham, wom, quam whom, wham, won, whan wan, quam	what, huet

What is used as an adjective without inflexions.

In the FOURTH PERIOD, N. who, what; G. whos, whoos, whose; A. whom, what.

Hwæder, whether, which of two.

## FIRST PERIOD.

		М.	F.	N.
Singular.	N.	hwæðer	hwæðeru	hwæðer
	G.	hwæðeres	hwæðerre	as masc.
	D.	hwæðerum	hwæðerre	,,
	A.	hwæðerne	hwæðere	hwæðer
		M. AND F.	•	N.
Plural.	N.	hwæðerre	h	wæðeru
	G.	hwæðerra		
	D.	hwæðerum		
	A.	hwæðere	h	wæðeru

Hwile is declined like the strong declension of adjectives.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

## In Lazamon we find in Text A:-

Singular,	G. D.	M. while, whule whulches whulche whulche	F. whulche whulchere whulchere whulche
-----------	----------	--	--

Plural. N. whulche, &c.

In Text B we have woch (oblique cases woche).

In the Ormulum we have Sing. N. whille, G. whillkes, Plut. N. whillke.

In the Third Period this pronoun is flexionless; the ploften has the final  $e^1:-whylc$ , whilch, whilk, wich, wuch, woch, huich; pl. whilche, whiche, huiche.

In the Fourth Period the is joined to which, as the which (relative).

## VII. Relative Pronouns.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

- (1) Se (masc.), séo, sio (fem.), þæt (neut.).
- "Caron se hæsde éac prío heasdu and se wæs swide oreald."--
  - "He hæsde an swide ænlice wis sio wæs haten Eurydice."-1b.
  - " pa næsde he ná scipa bonne án bæt wæs beah bre-rebre."—Ib.
  - " Se burhwunad od ende se byd hal."-Matt. x. 26.
  - (2) de with se, séo, dæt, as se-de, séo-de, dæt-de (dæt-te).
- "Is for di an Fæder se de æfre is Fæder."—ÆLFRIC, De Fide Catholica.
  - (3) be (indeclinable).
  - "Gesælig bið se mon de mæg geséon."-Boethius.
  - " Ælc bara be yfele deb, hatab bæt leoht."-John iii. 20.

<sup>1</sup> The Ayenbite has dative plural in -en, as huichen.

- (4) Se 8e . . . se.
- " Se de brýd hæfd, se is brýdguma."-John iii, 9.
- (5)  $\delta$ **e** with personal pronouns, as  $\delta e$  ic (ic  $\delta e$ ),  $\delta u$ ,  $\delta e$ , &c.
- "Ic eom Gabrihel ic de stand beforan Gode."-Luke i. 19.
- " Fæder úre, ðú ðe eart on heofonum."-Matt. vi. 9.
- (6)  $\delta e \dots he = who$ ,  $\delta e \dots his = whose$ ,  $\delta e \dots him = whom$ .
  - " de he sylfa ástáh ofer sunnan up."-Ps. lxvii. 4.
  - " ðæf næs ná eowres ðances, ac ðurh God ðe ic ðurh his willan hider asend wæs,"—Gen. xlv. 8.

## In the SECOND PERIOD we find-

- (1) indeclinable pe. (2) that, thet, with antecedents of all genders. (3) pe pe, peo pe (= se pe, seo pe). Cp.
- (1) "Eft se be dælð ælmyssam for his drihtnes lufon se behyt his goldhord," &c.—O. E. Hom. p. 300.
- (2) "Eft be be deled elmessen for his drihtnes luuan: be behut his goldhord."—Ib. p. 109.
- (3) pe be is further changed to pe pat and he pat (he pet). Cp.
  - "Se be 2 aihte wil holde."—Moral Ode, 1. 55, in O.E. Hom. Second Series.
  - " he het," &c .- Ib. in O. E. Hom. First Series.
  - "Se be her dod ani god."-1b. 1. 53, in O.E. Hom. Second Series.
  - " be be," &c .- Ib. in O. E. Hom. First Series.
- "He pat," &c .- Ib. in O.E. Miscellany, latter part of the thirteenth century.

# be be is not found in Lazamon's Brut.

In the Ancren Rivole be . . . bet = be be . . . be:

- " be is federleas bet haued . . . vorlore bene Veder of heouene."
- " peo des also peo is betere pen ich am."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Extract (1) is from the English of the First period, (2) of the Second period (about 1150).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Se be is borrowed from a version of the First period.

APP.

That as a relative replaced—(1) the indeclinable  $\delta_e$ ; (2)  $\delta_e$  in  $\delta_e$   $\delta_e$  (se  $\beta_e$ ), &c.

- (1) First period-
  - "On anre dune de is gehaten Synay."-ÆLFRIC.

Second period-

- "Uppon ane dune pat is be mont of Synai."—O.E. Hom. First Series, p. 86.
  - (2) First period-
  - "Swa sceal se láreow don se de bid," &c. -ÆLFRIC.

Second period-

- "Alswa scal pe lardeu pe pet bid," &c .- O. E. Hom. p. 95.
- (3) First period-
- "An (tyd) is se de wæs buten æ."-ÆLFRIC.

Second period-

"On is bet wes buten e."-O.E. Hom. p. 89.

In the *Ormulum*, pat replaces  $pe \dots pe$ , pe, &c. The place pat = those that.

In Chaucer we find that ... he = who; that ... his = whose; that ... him = whom.

"A worthy man,
That from the tyme that he first began
To ryden out, he lovede chyvalrye."—Prol. 11. 43-45.

- "Al were they sore hurte and namely oon

  That with a spere was thirled his brest boon."

  Knightes Tale, ll. 1843-44.
- "I saugh today a corps yborn to chirche,

  That now on Monday last I saugh him wirche."

  Milleres Tale.

For other forms see Relative Pronouns pp. 193 ff.

## VIII. Indefinite Pronouns.

(1) An (one, a) is declined according to the strong declension.

#### FIRST PERIOD

Singular.	M.		F.	N.
	N. án		án	án
	G. ánes		ánre	ánes
•	D.	ánum	ánre	ánum
	A.	ánne, Ænne	áne	án
	I.	áne	ánre	áne
Plural (of all genders).				

I. ánum

In the Second period we find—

A. áne

		М.	F.	N.
Singular.	N.	an, on, a	an, on, a	an, a
· ·	G.	anes, ænnes, ones	ære, are, ore	as masc.
	D.	ane, anne	are, one	,,
	Α.	ænne, enne	ane, æne	an. a

In the Third and subsequent periods it is uninflected.1

(2) Nán (ne + an), no, is declined in the same way.

In the Second and Third periods it is for the most part uninflected. In Southern writers we find gen. sing., as nones kunnes, of no kind.

The Ayenbite has acc. nenne, dat. nonen.

(3) Sum (a, certain, some) is declined in the First period according to the strong declension of adjectives.

In Lazamon (Second period) we have the following forms:----

In the Ayenbite, enne, acc. of one, ane acc. masc. and fem. of an. a; so onen = anum, dat. sing. = to one (used subst.): see Ayenbite, P. 175.

Singular. N. sum sum
G. summes sumere
D. summe sumere
A. sumne sum

Plural. N. and A. summe D. summen

In the *Ormulum* we find—

N. sum. G. sumess. Pl. sume.

In the Third and Fourth periods we find sum, som, some: Pl. sume, summe, some, used mostly in its modern acceptation.

(4) **Man** (Ger. man), one, is used in the First period only in the nom. In the Second and subsequent periods, we find mon, man, and me<sup>1</sup> used with a verb in the singular.

Traces of this me are found in Elizabethan literature:—

(5) Ænig (any), negative nænig, was declined according to the strong declension.

In the second period the g falls away. The following forms are used by Lazamon:—Sing. N. ani, ai, ai, ei: Gen. aies, ai; Dat. ai; Acc. aine, aie. Pl. ai.

In the subsequent periods we find ani, any, ony, eny, with Pl. enie, anie, &c.

(6) Óver, one of two, the first or the second,

"I.amech nam twa wif, oder wæs genemned Ada and oder Sella."—Gen. iv. 19.

"Sóolice Ber is se Fæder, Ber is se sunu."-ÆLFRIC, De Fide Catholica.

In the Second period we find an oberr, ani3 oberr, nan oberr, sum oberr—(Ormulum).

In the Third period—that an, that oon, the ton, the toon

<sup>1</sup> This form is looked upon as a shortened form of men.

= the one, the first; that other, thet other = the other, the second. We also find thother = the other.

The pl. of over is over. In the Third and Fourth periods we find—oper and oper. In the Ayenbite we find pl. open.

(7) Hwá (any one) and hwæt (aught).

"And gif hwá tó inc hwat cwyd."-Matt. xi. 3

See other examples in Indefinite Pronouns.

We have also compounds, as swyles hwæt, hwæt lytles (in Ormulum, littless whatt), elles hwæt.

In the Second period summwhatt (Orm.) makes its appearance.

# (8) Hwylc (any one).

"Gif éow havyle sego."-Mark xiii. 21.

Cp. "pai fande iii crossis; an was pat ilke. Bot wiste pai no5t quilk was quilk, pe quilk mupt pe peuis be."—Legends of Holy Rood, p. 113.

- (9) In all periods such is an indefinite pronoun:
- "Be swilcum, and be swilcum bu miht ongitan," &c. (BOETHIUS) = By such and such thou mayest perceive, &c.
- "Whi art thou swich and swich that thou dars passe the lawe."—Pilgrimage, p. 78.
  - (10) Even that becomes an indefinite pronoun:

"Swich a time thou didest thus, swich a sonedai, swich a moneday thanne thou didest that and thanne that."—Pilgrimage.

Cp. "Had it been
Rapler or that and poniard . . .
. . . I had been then your man."—A Cure for a Cuckold.

- (11) In "Hakluyt's Voyages" (1589) we find he used indefinitely—he...he = one... other: "After comes hee and hee." Cp. Chaucer's use of he in Knightes Tale, ll. 1756—1761:
  - 4" He rolleth under foot as doth a balle. He foyneth on his feet with a tronchoun, And he him hurtleth with his hors adoun, He thurgh the body is hurt, and siththen take Maugre his heed, and brought unto the stake Another lad is on that other side."

## IX. Compounds.

(1) Of hwá: -ge-hwá, each, every; deg-hwá (= d-ge-hwá). every; elles hwá (Lat. ali-quis), any; swá-hwá-swá, whoso, whosoever: hwat-hwagu, anything.

In the subsequent periods, swá-hwá-swá becomes (1)

hwa-swa, hwa-se, (2) whoso, whose.

(2) Of hwæder: - á-hwæder, anyone, áwder, áder, áder  $(=d-ge-hwa\delta er)$ ,  $dghwa\delta er$ ,  $dg\delta er$ ,  $eg\delta er$ , other, either; ge-hwæder, either; n-á-hwæder, náwder, nówder, nóder, neither.

Later forms 1 are own per, eyper, ouper, oper = either; nouber, nowweber, nober = neither.

(3) Of hwile:—ge-while, anybody; \(\delta gwhile\), whoever; hwilchugu, anyone, anything; swá-hwilc-swá, whosoever.

In the Second period we find ge-hwile softened down to ihwilc.

(4) ÆIc (= d - ge - lic), each all, was declined like hwile.

In the Second Period we have the following forms:-

M. F.

Singular. N. ælc, ech

ælc, ech G. ælches, alches, eches

alchere, elchere D. elchen, alche, eche alchere, elchere

A. ælcne, alcne, echne elche, eche

We also find  $\alpha lcan =$ each one, which is uninflected.

In the subsequent periods we find ilk, ech, uch, ilka, uch a, ech a, ych a. In the Ayenbite we find echen, after the prepositions of, to, in.

Æuer-ælc (every) was inflected like ælc, and in the Third period we find-

"Evereches owe name."—St. Brandan, p. 3.

In the Ayenbite we find Sing. Acc. evrinne, Dat. evrichen.

From these forms we get either, other, or, nor.

# CONJUGATION OF WEAK VERBS.

## FIRST PERIOD.

	INDICATIVE	PRESENT.	SUBJUNCTIVE	PRESENT.			
(1)	Sing, nerie <sup>1</sup>	Pr neriað	Sing. nerie	Pr nerien			
(-/	sealfie 2	sealfiað	sealfie	sealfien			
	nerest	neriað	nerie	nerien			
	sealfast	sealfiað	sealfie	sealfien			
(2)	nereð sealfinð	neriaຽ sealfiaຽ	nerie sealfie	nerien sealfien			
	INDICATIVE P	RETERITE.	SUBJUNCTIVE PRETERITE.				
	Sing.	PL.	Sing.	P1.,			
(1)	nerede	neredon	nerede	nereden			
	sealfode	sealfodon	sealfode	sealfoden			
(2)	neredest	neredon	nerede	nereden			
	sealfodest	sealfodon	scalfode	sealfoden			
(3)	nerede	neredon	neredes	nereden			
	sealfode	sealfodon	scalfode	sealfoden			
	IMPERATIV	E MOOD.	INFIN.	DAT. INF.			
	Sing.	P1	nerian	tó nerienne			
(2)	nere sealfa	neriaປີ sealfiaປີ	sealfian	tó sealfianne			
		PRES. P.	PASS. P.				
	•	neriende	nered				
		sealfiende	sealfod				
GOTHIC.							
	INDICATIVE	PRESENT.	SUBJUNCTIVE	PRESENT.			
	Sing.	PL.	Sing.	PL.			
(1)	nasja	nasjam	nasjau	nasjai-ma			
	salbô	salbôm	salbô	salbôma			
(2)	nasjis	nasjiþ	nasjais	nasjaiþ			
	salbôs	salbôb	salbôs	salbôþ			
(3)	nasjib •	•	maniai	nasjaina			
137	salbôb	nasjand salbônd	nasjai salbô	salbôna			
<b>.</b>	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Saidulla	Julio	Jul Doille			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> To save.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> To salve.

	INDICATIVE	PRETERITE.	SUBJUNCTIVE	PRETERITE.
(1)	Sing. nasida salbôda	Pr nasidêdum salbôdêdum	Sing. nasidêdjau salbodêdjau	Pr nasidêdeima salbôdêdeima
(2)	nasidês salbôdes	nasidêduþ salbôdêduþ	nasidêdeis salbôdêdeis	nasidêdei) salbôdêdei)
(3)	nasida salbôda	nasidêdum salbôdêdum	nasidêdi salbôdêdi	nasidêdeina salbôdêdeina
	IMPER	ATIVE.	INF	IN.
(2)	Sing. nasei salbô	PL. nasjiþ salbôþ	nas sali	
		PRES, P. nasjands salbônds	rass. r. nasiþs salbóþs	

# CONJUGATION OF STRONG VERBS.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

### ACTIVE VOICE.

# Niman, to take.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRES. INF.	PERF.	PL.	Р. г.
niman	nam	námon	numen

Present (and Future) Tense.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

(1)	Sing. Ic nime	PL. we nimað	Sing. Ic nime	Pr we nimen	
(2)	þú nimest	ge nimað	þú nime	ge nimen	
(3)	he nimeð	hi nimað	he nime	hi nimen	

### Preterite.

(1)	Sing. Ic nam	Pr we námon	Sing. Ic náme	P <sub>t</sub> . we námen	
(2)	þu náme	ge námon	þu náme	ge námen	
(3)	he nam	hi námon	he náme	hi namen	

INFINITIVE.

		IMPERATIVE.		Simple.	Dative.
(2)	nim	nimað		niman	to nimanne
		PRES. P. nimende		PASS. P. numen	
		GG	отни	<b>3.</b> 1	
	INDI	CATIVE PRESENT.		SUBJUNCT	IVE PRESENT.
(1)	Sing. nima	Pr nimam	(1)	Sing. nimau	Pr. nimai-ma
(2)	nimis	nimiþ	(2)	nimais	nimaiþ
(3)	nimiþ	nimand	(3)	nimai	nimai-na
	INDIC	ATIVE PRETERITE.		SUBJUNCTIV	E PRETERITE.
(1)	nam	nêmum	(1)	nêm- <b>j</b> au	nêmeima
2)	namt	nêmu)	(2)	nêmjeis	nêmeiþ
3)	nam	nêmun	(3)	nêmi	nêmeina
		IMPERATIVE.		INFIN.	DAT. INFIN.
2)	Sing.	Pr., nimiþ		niman	
		PRES. P.		PASS, P.	

#### FIRST PERIOD.

nimand-s nimibs

(1) Many strong verbs have change of vowel in the second and third persons sing, pres. indic.

(1)	cume (come)	créope (creep)	bace (bake)	feallan (fall)
(2)	cymst	crýpst	beest	felst
(3)	cymð	crýpð	becð	felð

(2) Strong verbs have the same vowel-change in the second person preterite indicative as in the plural, as Ic fand (found),  $\delta u$  funde (= foundest), pl. we fundon, &c.

### CLASSIFICATION OF STRONG VERBS.

# Division I. Class I.

	Pres. a, ea.	PRET. Co. E.	Pass. P. a.	ca.
(1)	fealle	féoll	feallen	fall
(-/	wealle	wéoll	weallen	well
	fealde	féold	fealden	fold
	healde	héold	healden	hold
	stealde	stéold	stealden	possess
	wealde	wéold	wealden	wield
	banne	béon	bannen	order
	spanne	spéon	spannen	
	fő <sup>1</sup>	fểng	fangen	take, catch
	hó (hange)	héng	hangen	hang
	gange	géong	gangen	go
	Pres. â.	Pret. éo, é.	P.p. á.	
(2)	swápe	swéop	swápen	sweep
• /	ge-nápe	genéop	genåpen	whelm
	bláwe	bléow	bláwen	blow
	cnáwe	cnéow	cnáwen	know
	crawe	créow	cráwen	crow
	máwe	méow	máwen	mow
	sáwe	séow	sáwen	sow
	ðráwe	ðréow	ðráwen	thfow
	wáwe	wéow	wáwen	blow
	bláte	blét (bléot)	bláten	become pale
	háte	hét (heht)	háten	order .
	hnáte	hnéot (hnét)	hnáten	knock
	scáde	sced (sciod, (sceod)	scáden	shed, divide
	láce	léolc (lec)	lácen	leap
	Pres. eá.	PRET. 60.	P.P. ća.	
(3)	héafe	héof	héafen	lament
ν	hléap <b>e</b>	hléop	hléapen	leap
	á-hnéape	a-hnéop	ahnéapen	sever
	héawe •	héow	héawen	hew
	béate	béot	béaten	beat
	bréate	bréot	bréaten	break
	déage	déog	déagen	dye

<sup>1</sup> Gothic fåhan derives from an older form fanhan, håhan from hanhan.

	PRES. Co.	Pret. éo, é.	P. P. a.	
(4)	slæpe læte on-dræde ræde	slép léort (léot, lét) -dréord (-dréd) réord (réd, ræd)	slæpen læten -dræden ræden	sleep let dread counsel
	Pres. $\delta$ .	Pret. éo, é.	P.p. ó.	
(5)	hrówe hwópe blówe flówe grówe hlówe rówe swówe blóte swóge	hréow hwéop bléow fléow gréow hléow réow swéow (swég) bléot swéoh (sweég)	hrówen hwópen blówen flówen grówen hlówen rówen swówen blóten swógen	cry whoop blow flow grow low row speed sacrifice overpower
	Pres. & wépe	Pret. &. wéop	P.P. & wépen	weep

Géong was replaced by a weak form éode (eade) from root i, to go. A weak form gengde is also met with.

Slépde occurs for slep in the Northern dialect.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

Pres.	PRET.	Р. Р.	
falle, ualle	ucol, feol, fol, fel	iuallen, iueollen 1	fall
halde (holde)	heold, held, hæld, huld	ihalden, iholden	hold
falde (folde)	feold	ifolden	fold
walde (welde)	wald, weld	awald	wield
walke `	weolk, welk	iwalken	walk
fo (fange)	feng	ifon, ifongen	take
ga (go, gange)		igan, igon, gangen	go
hange	heong, heng	hongen, hon	hang
hate (hote)	hahte, hehte, het	ihæten, ihote, ihaten	order
lake	læc		leap
blawe (blowe, blæwe)	bleou, bleu, blew,	iblowen	blow
cnawe (cnowe)	cneow, cnew, kneu	icnawen	know
sawe (sowe)	seow, sow	isowen, isawen	sow

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Southern dialects retain the prefix i or y before the p.p., and frequently drop the final n. The Northern dialects drop the prefixal i, but seldom lose the n.

Pret.

P. P.

PRES.

Pres.	Pret.	Р. р.	
mawe (mowe)	meow, mew	imowen	mow
brawe (browe)	breou, breu	ithrowen	throw
slæpe (slepe)	slæp, sleap	islepen	sleep
læpe (lepe)	leop, lep, leup,		leap
læte (lete)	let	ileten, ilæten	let
wepe (weope)	weop, wep	iwepen	weep
hewe `	heow, hew	iheawen, iheouwen, hæwen	hew
bete	beot, bet	ibeaten, ibæten	beat
rowe	rew, reu	irowen	row
growe	greu, greow	igrowen	grqw
Some few p	erfects have becor	ne weak, as :—	
lete (lete)	lette (lætte, leatte)1		let
lepe	leopt 1		leap
slepe	sleapte (slapte) <sup>2</sup>		sleep
drede	dredde <sup>3</sup>	adrad <sup>1</sup>	dread
shæde	shadde <sup>3</sup>	shadd <sup>3</sup>	shed
	Third Pe	ERIOD.	
PRES.	PRET.	Р. г.	
falle	vil, fel, fil, ful	yfalle, yfallen, yvalle, fallen	fall
halde (holde)	held, hield, huld	yholde, iholden	hold
fange (fo, fonge)	afong, afeng, aveng,	yfonge, ifongen,	take
• 0	avong, veng	ivongen	
hange (honge)	heng	yhonge	hang
go	1. A. D. 1. 1.	ygo, gon, gan	go
hote	het, hight	yhote	call, nan
blowe (blawe)	blew	yblowe, yblowen	blow
knowe (knawc)	knew, kneu	yknowen, knawen	know
SOW	seu, sew	sowen	sow thrown
prowe	brew, breu	iþrowen	sleep
slepe	slep, sleep, sleop, slup		siccl
bete	byet, bet	byeten, ibeten	beat
lete (late)	let	ilate, laten	let
drede	dred 6		dread
lepe	lep, hliep, hlip	and a second	leap
wepe	wep	*****	weep
hewe	hew	ihewen	'hey'
rowe	rew, row		row
growe	grew, greu	igrowen	grow
P. 0.4.C	Sien, gieu	Promen	0-0

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Lazamon. <sup>2</sup> In Lazamon and Ormulum. <sup>3</sup> In Ormulum

The following weak forms are to be met with:-

idrad (p.p.), dradde (perf.), and fanged (perf. and p.p.), hatte (p.p.), shadde (perf.), shad (p.p.), lette (perf.), ilet (p.p.), wepte, wepted (perf.), 3ede and wende, went (perf.), hanged, henged (p.p.).

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

Pres.	Pret.	P.P.	
falle •	fel, ful	fallen	fall
holde	held, huld	holden	hold
walk	welk		walk
under-fong	-feng	-fongen	undertake
honge, hange	heng, heeng	hongen	hang
gon, goon, goo, go		goon, gon, ygo	go
hote	hight	hoten	call, name
blowe	blew	blowen	blow
knowe	knew	knowen	know
crowe	crew, creew	crowen	crow
growe	grew	growen	grow
sowe	sew, scew	sowen	sow
throw	threw	throwen	throw
slepe	slep, sleep	slepen	sleep
lepe	leep, lep	lopen	leap
lete, late	let, leet	leten	let
hewe	hew, heew	hewen	hew
bete	bet, beet	beten	beat
wepe	wep, weep	wepen, wopen	weep

# (1) The following weak forms make their appearance:—

weeldide (p.p. weeldid), walked (perf. and p.p.), underfonged (perf.), hangide, hongede (perf.), hanged, honged (p.p.), swepide (perf.), isweped (p.p.), knowide (perf.), sowide (perf.), sowid (p.p.), leppide, lepte (perf.), growed (perf.), leppid, lept (p.p.), slepte (perf.), slept (p.p.), dredde, dradde (perf.), adred, adrad (p.p.).

- (2) Held, heng, are sometimes used for the p.p.
- (3) A mute final e is often found in the perfect, as blewe, crewe, leete, &c.

### Division II. Class 1.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

1	Pres. $c$ , $i$ .	Pret. a (ea, a	). Pi <i>u</i> .	P.P. u,	o.
(1)	belle	beal	bullon	bollen	bellow
• /	swelle	sweal (sweoll)	swullon	swollen	swell
	helpe	healp	hulpon	holpen	help
	delfe	dealf	dulfon	dolfen	delve
	melte	mealt	multon	molten	melt
	swelte	swealt	swulton	swolten	die
	be-telde	teald	tuldon	tolden	cover up
	melce	mealc	mulcon	molcen	milk .
	belge	bealh (bealg)	bulgon	bolgen	be wroth
	féole	fealh (fealg)	fulgon <sup>1</sup>	folgen	hide
	swelge	swealh (swealg)	swulgon	swolgen,	swallow
	J	, 0	Ü	swelgen	
	gielle	geal	gullon	gollen	yell
	gielpe	gealp	gulpon	golpen	boast
	gielde	geald	guldon	golden	pay
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			•
(2)	hlimme	hlam	hlummon	hlummen	sound
	grimme	gram	grummon	grummen	rage
	swimme	swam	swummon		swim
	climbe	clamb, clom	clumbon	clumben	climb
	gelimpe	gelamp	gelumpon		happen
	gerimpe	geramp	gerumpon		rumple
	on-ginne	-gan	-gunnon	-gunnen	begin
	linne	lan	lunnon	lunnen	cease
	rinne (eorne)	ran	runnon	runnen	run
	sinne	san	sunnon	sunnen	think
	spinne	span	spunnon	spunnen	spin
	winne	wan	wunnon	wunnen	fight (win)
	stinte	stant	stunton	stunten	stint
	<b>Trinte</b>	Grant	Trunton	Grunten	swell
	binde	band	bundon	bunden	bind
	finde	fand .	fundon	funden	find
	grinde	grand	grundon	grunden	grind
	hrinde	hrand	hrundon	hrunden	push
	swinde	swand	swundon	swunden	pine (swoon)
	oinde	ðand	dundon	ðunden	swell
	winde	wend	wundon	wunden	wind
	crince	cranc	cruncon	cruncen	yield
	á-cwince	-cwanc	-cwuncon	-cwuncen	go out
	drince	dranc	druncon	druncen	(quench) drink
	Willion .	diano		a. u.i.ocii	

	Pres. c, i.	Pret. a (са, ас).	PL. u.	P.P. u, o.	
	for-scrince	-scranc	-scruncon	-scruncen	shrink
	since	sanc	suncon	suncen	sink
	stince	stane	stuncon	stuncen	stink
	swince	swanc	swuncon	swuncen	toil
	bringe	brang <sup>1</sup>	brungon <sup>1</sup>	brungen <sup>1</sup>	bring
	clinge	clang	clungon	clungen	cling (withe
	cringe	crang	crungon	crungen	cringe, fall
	singe	sang	sungon	sungen	sing
	springe	sprang	sprungon	sprungen	spring
	stinge	stang	stungon	stungen	sting
	swinge	swang	swungon	swungen	swing, beat
	ðringe -	drang	ðrungon	ðrungen	throng
	dwinge	ðwang	ðwungon	ซึพแทgen	constrain
	wringe	wrang	wrungon	wrungen	wring
	Pres. co.	Pret. ea.	Рь. и.	P.P. o.	
(3)	murne	mearn	murnon	mornen	mourn
	spurne	spearn	spurnon	spornen	spurn
	weorpe	wearp	wurpon	worpen	warp, throw
	ceorfe	cearf	curfon	corfen	carve, cut
	deorfe	dearf	durfon	dorfen	labour
	hweorfe	hwear	hwurfon	hworfen	return
	steorfe	stearf	sturfon	storfen	starve, die
	sweorfe	swearf	swurfon	sworfen	cleanse
	weorðe	wearð	wurdon	worden	become
	sweorce	swearc	swurcon	sworcen	grow faint
	beorge	bearh	burgon	borgen	guard
	feohte	feaht	fuhton	fohten	fight
	Pres. e.	Pret. ea (a).	PL. u.	P. P. o.	
(4)	berste	bearst	burston	borsten	burst
117	dersce	varse	durscon	dorscen	thresh
	gefrigne	gefrægn	gefrunon	gefrugen	ask
	bregde				braid
	stregde	brægd strægd	brugdon	brogden	
	guc	strægd	strugdon	strogden	strew,
					sprinkle

# SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
swelle 3elpe 3elle	swal, swol 3ealp, 3alp	swolzen sulden	swollen 30lpen	swell yelp
3elle	5al	zullen	30llen	yelİ

Later forms for brohte, brohton, broht.

Pres.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
helpe	halp, help	holpen	holpen	help
delve	dalf, dolf, delf	dulfen,	dolfen,	delve
		dulven	dolven	
3elde	zeald, zald	zulden,	30lden	<b>y</b> ield
•.	•.	30lden		
swelte	swalt	swulten	swolten	swelter, die
bel3e	balg, bælh, belh, balh	bul3en	bol3en, bolwen	be angry, swell
swel3e	swealh	swolzen	-	swallow
swimme	swam, swom	swummen	swommen	swim
(bi)-limpe	-lomp, -lamp	-lumpen,	-lumpen	happen
(51) 1111-		lompen	•	•
climbe	clamb, clomb	clumben	clumben	climb
b-linne	blan	blunnen	blunnen	cease
(be)-ginne	-gan, -gon	-gunnen	-gunnen	begin
(a)-ginne	-	•	.,	_
(i)-winne	-wan, -won	-wunnen	-wunnen	win run
rinne (irne,	ran, ron (orn,	urnen	runnen	1 411
eorne,	arn)			
beorne,	born	burnen		burn
berne,	50111	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		
brinne				
binde	band, bond	bunden	bunden	bind
finde	fand, fond,	funden	funden	find
	vond		•	
grinde	grand, grond	grunden	grunden	grind
swinde	swond			wind
winde	wand, wond	wunden	wunden swunken	toil
{swinche, swinke	swanc, swonc	swunken	Swullkell	1011
(drinke	dranc, dronc	drunken	drunken	drink
(drinche)	diane, dione	aramen		
stinke	stanc, stone	stunken	stunken	stink
singe	sang, song	sungen	sungen	sing
springe	sprang, sprong	sprungen	sprungen	spring
swinge	swang, swong	swungen	swungen	swing
ringe	rang, rong	rungen	rungen	ring
clinge	clang, clong	clungen	clun <b>g</b> en	cling
stinge	stang, stong	stungen	stungen	sting
þringe	þrang, þrong	þrungen	þrungen	throng
weorpe,	warp, worp,	wurpen	worpen	warp
worpe,	werp		•	**
( werpe sterfe	starf, sterf	sturven	storven	die
kerfe	carf, cærf, kerf		corven	cut
wurbe (worbe)	warb	wurben	wurben,	become
marpe (morpe)	······································	y	worben	
			•	,

Pres. breste, berste	PRET. brast, barst borst	PL. brusten, bursten	P. P. brosten, borsten, brusten, bursten	burst
þresce	þrash	þrushen	þroshen	thresh
swærce	-	swurken		grow faint
fehte	faht, feaht, fogt, feht	fuhten	fohten, fogten	fight
berge	barh, barg	bur3en	borgen borwen	protect
(brede	braid (breid)	bruiden	— ì	
(abrede	abred		abroden }	braid

- (1) Southern English dialects have o for the Northern a in the perfect, as fond = fand; stonc = stanc, &c.
  - (2) A few verbs have become weak in Lazamon, as-

mornede (perf.), murned (p.p.); freinede (perf.), freined (p.p.); barnde (perf.); derfde (perf.), derved (p.p.); clemde (perf.); ringede (perf.). Frazznedd (p.p.) occurs in the Ormulum.

#### THIRD PERIOD.

Pres.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
helpe	help, halp, heolp	holpen	holpen 1	help
5elpe	5alp		30lpen	boast
delve	dalf	dolven	dolven	delve
melte	malt, molt	molten	molten	melt
3elde	3alt, 3old, zeld	30lden	3olden, yolden	yield
swelze	swal			swell
climb	clam	clomben	clomben	climb
swimme	swam, swom		*******	swim
ginne	gan, gon	gonnen	gonnen, gunnen	begin
winne	wan, won	wonnen	wonnen	win
rinne, renne	ran, ron	ronnen	ronnen, runnen	run
irne	orn, arn, yarn	<b>T</b>	y-yerne	run
linne, b-linne	blan, lan	blonnen	blonnen	lease
binde	band, bond	bonden bounden	bonden, bounden bunden	bind
*****				

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  n often dropped in Southern dialects. The Northern dialects prefer  $^{1}$  in the pl. and p.p.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. r.	
finde	fand, fond, vond	fonden, founden	fonden, funden, founden	find
winde	wond, wand	wonden	wonden	wind
drinke	drank, dronk	drunken	dronken, drunken	drink
sinke	sank, sonk	sunken, sonken	sonken	sink
stinke	stank, stonk	stonken	stonken	stink
swinke	swank	swonken	swonken	toil
singe	sang, song, zang, zong	songen	zongen, songen, sungen	sing
slinge	slong, slang	slongen	slongen	sling
þringe	brang, brong	þrongen	þrungen	throng
springe	sprang, sprong	sprongen	sprongen	spring
ringe	rong, rang	rongen	rongen, rungen	ring
wringe	wrang, wrong	wrongen	wrongen	wring
stinge	stang, stong	stongen	stongen, stungen	sting
swinge	swong, swang	swongen	swungen	swing
kerve	carf, kerf	corven	corven	carve
sterve	starf	storven	storven	starve
werpe	warp	Accessed to	worpe <b>n</b>	warp
berste,	brast, barst,	borsten	borsten, bursten	burst
breste	borst		•	
ber5e	bor3		borzen	protect
brede	braid (to-bred)	-		braid
worpe	werþ, worþ	worben		become
fi3te	fo5t, faght, vo5t	fo5ten	fogten, foughten	fight

Weak perfects replace strong ones, as :---

Clemde (Early Eng. Poems); swelled (Tristram); swalle (Ayenbite); swelled (Psalter); arnde (Robt. of Gl.); helped is a p.p. in Psalter; melted; slenget (Havelok).

## FOURTH PERIOD

PRES. swell helpe delve melte swelte zelde,	PRET. swall halp, holp dalf malt, molt swelt 3ald, 3old, 3eld	PL. swollen holpen dolven molten 5olden, zelden	P.P. swollen holpen dolven, delven molten — 3olden	swell help delve melt die yield
3eelde swimme climbe	swam, swom clamb, clomb	3elden swommen clomben, clamben	swommen clomben	swim climb

Pres.	PRET.	PL.	Р. р.	
biginne	(bi)-gan	(bi)gonnen, (bi)gunnen	(bi)gunnen, (bi)gonnen	begin
spinne	span	sponnen	sponnen	spin
winne	wan, won	wonnen	wonnen	win
renne	ran, ron	ronnen, runnen	runnen, ronnen	run
stinte		-	stenten	stint (stop)
binde	bond, boond, bound, band	bounden	bounden	bind
finde	fond, foond	founden	founden	found
grinde,	grond, grand	grounden	grounden	grind
winde	wond	wounden	wounden	wind
sinke	sank, sonk	sonken	sonken, sunken	
drinke	drank, dronk	dronken	drunken	drink
swinke	swank	swonken	swonken	toil
stinke	stank, stonk	stonken	stonken	stink
shrinke	shrank	shronken	shronken	shrink
ringe	rang, rong	rongen	rongen, rungen	
singe	sang, soong, song	songen	songen, sungen	.,
stinge	stong	stongen	stongen, stungen	sting
springe	sprang, sprong, sproong	sprongen	sprongen sprungen	spring
thringe	throng	throngen thrungen	throngen	throng
wringe	wrong, wrang	wrongen	wrongen	wring
kerve	karf	korven	korven	carve
sterve	starf	storven	storven	starve
worthe	worth		worthen	become
breste	brast, brost, brest, barst, borst	brosten, barsten, borsten	brosten, borsten	burst
threshe	thrasch	throshen	throshen	thresh
breide	(to-)brayd			braid
fizte	fazt, fauzt	fogten, fougten	fou3ten	fight

- (1) Weak perfects—holpede, delvide, meltide, zeldide, kervyde, rennede, threschide (Wicklisse), swymmed (Allit. Poems).
- (2) Weak p.p.—helped, melted, threshed brayzede (Wickliffe).

# DIVISION II. Class II.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

(1)	Pres. i. cwele ge-dwele hele stele swele	PRET. &, a (pl. &, a) cwell 1 -dwel hæl stæl swel	P.P. u, o. cwolen -dwolen holen stolen swolen	die err hide, cover steal sweal	
(2)	nime cwime, cume	nam (nom) cwam (cwom, com)	numen cumen	take come	
(3)	bere sciere tere ge-ðwere brece	bær scær tær -ðwær bræc	boren scoren toren -ðworen brocen	bear " shear tear stir break	
	SECOND PERIOD.				
(1) (2)	PRES. stele nime	PRET. stal, (stalen, pl.) nam, nom, næm	P.P. stolen	steal steal	
(2)		(nomen, nemen, pl.)	numen, nomen		
	come, cume	com (comen, pl.)	cumen, comen	come	
(3)	bere	bær, bar, bor, beer (pl. beren, bæren)	boren	bear	
	scere, schære		scoren	shear	
	tere	tar (toren, pl.)	toren	tear	
(4)	·break	brac, bræc, breac, brec (brocen, braken, pl.)	broken	break	
	speke, spæke	spac, spæc, spec (pl. spæken, speken)	speken, spoken	speak	
			_		

# Weak perfect—helede (Lazamon).

# THIRD PERIOD.

	PRES.	PRET.	Р.Р.	
(1)	hele, hile	hal	holen	hide
	stele	stel, stal	stolen	stëal
(2)	nime	nom, nam	nomen, numen	take
	come	com, cam	comen, cumen	come

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Pl. cwdlon. All verbs of this class have a long vowel in plural.

(3)	Pres. bere schere tere	PRET. ber, bar, bor scher, schar, schor tar	P.P. boren schoren, schorn toren	bear shear tear
(4)	breke speke	brac, brek spac, spec	broken spoken	break sp <b>ea</b> k
		Fourth Pr	ERIOD.	
	PRES. stele nime come, cume	PRET. stal, staal, stol, stel nam, nom, nem cam, com	P.P. stolen nomen comen, cumen	steal take come

come, cume cam, com comen, cumen bere bar, baar, beer, bor (bare)

schere schar schoren toren, torn tear breke, breeke brak (brake), breek comen, cumen boren, born bear

schoren schoren shear toren, torn tear breke, breeke brak (brake), breek broken break

Weak perfects — hilede and terede (Wickliffe).

#### DIVISION II. Class III.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. e	PRET. a (pl. d	). P.P. æ, i.	
drepe	dræp	drepen	strike, kill
swefe	swæf	swefen	sleep
wefe	wæf	wefen	weave
ete	æt	eten	eat
frete	fræt	freten	eat up
mete	mæt	meten	mete, measure
cnede	cnæd	cneden	knead
trede	træd	treden	tread
cweðe	cwæð	cweden	quoth
lese	læs	lesen	gather
ge-nese	-næs	-nesen	recover
Wese	wæs	wesen	be (was)
wrece	wræc	wrecen	wreak
wege	wæg	wegen	carry
gife	geaf	gifen	give
(for)gite	-geat	-gieten	(for)get
on-gite	-geat	-gieten	perceive
séo	seah (pl. sægðn, sáwon)	gesegen, gesewen	see
fricge	fræg	gefregen	inquire
licae	læg	legen	lie •
dicge	veah, dah (pl. vægon)	degen	take
sitte	sæt	geseten	sit
bidde	bæd	beden	bid

### SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	Р. Р.	
drepe	drap	dropen	slay
3ete	æt, et, at, æat		eat
(under) zite, (bi zete	3æt, -gat, -3at, -3et	-3eten, -geten, -3iten	perceive
(for)frete	fræt	freten	fret
mete	mæt	meten	mete
trede	træd (pl. treden), trad	treden	tread
queþe	cweb, quæb, cwab (pl. cwæben, queben)	queþe <b>n</b>	quoth
ALASTIN	wæs (pl. weren)	-	was '
wreke	wræc, wrec	wreken, wroken	wreak
sprece	spræ <b>c</b>	sprecen	speak
5ife	ziaf, zaf, zef	ziven, zeven	give
lyge	læi, leai, la33 (pl. 3even, læ3en)	leien, laien, lezen	lie
seo, se	sæh, seih, sag, seg, sah (pl. sæ3en, segen),	segen, sen, sogen sowen	see
sitte	sæt (pl. seten), sat, set	seten	sit
bidde	bæd, bed, bad (pl. bæden, beden, boden)		bid

# Tredded = trodden occurs in Ormulum, l. 5728.

### THIRD PERIOD.

PRES. drepe ete frete gete trede quebe wreke give ligge, lie sitte bidde se, seye	PRET. drap et fret 5at, 5ot, 3et trad quop, quop, quad wrak, wrek 3ef, 5af lai, lei, le3 sat, zet bad, bed say, sau, saw, sagh, sauh, sei	P. P. eten freten 3eten, 5iten treden, troden wroken 3iven, 3oven leyen, liggen seten beden seyen, seien, sewen, sogen,	slay eat fret get tread quoth wreak give lie sit bid see
	sagh, sauh, sei	wen, zozen, zezen, seen, sain, sen	

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	Pret.	P. p.	
weve	waf?	woven	weave
etc	et, eet	eten	eat
mete	mat, met	meten	mete
zete	zeet, zat, zot	zetten, zoten	get
trede (treede)	trad (trade)	treden, troden	tread
quebe	quod		quoth
wreke	wrak, wrek	wroken	wreak
se	sa 3, sa y, sei, sagh sa w, si 3, si h sa uh, sa ugh,		see
3ife, 3efe, 3eve	zaf, zef, yof	ziven, zeven, yoven	give
sitte	sat (sate)	sitten, secten, seten	sit
bidde	bad		$_{ m bid}$
ligge, lie	lay, ley	leyen, leien	lie

Weak forms—metide for mat or met.

# Division II. Class IV.

### FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. a.  (1) ale gale fare stape scieppe grafe scafe hlade wade ace bace sace wace wasse drage	PRET. & (pl. &). ól gól fór stóp scóp gróf scóf hlód wód óc bóc sóc wósc dróh	P.P. a. alen galen faren stapen scapen grafen scafen hladen waden acen bacen sacen wæseen dragen	shine sing fare, go step shape dig shave load wade, go ache bake fight wake wash drag, draw
gnage	droh gnóh	dragen gnagen	gnaw
2) sceððe sceace leá sleá oweá weaxe	scóð scóc lóh slóh ðwóh wóx	sceaden sceacen leahen slagen, sleahhen, öwegen weaxen	scathe shake blame slay wash wax

PRES. a.	Pret. δ (pl. δ).	Р. р. а.	
(3) spane stand	spón stód	spanen standen	allure stand
(4) swerige hebbe hleahhe, hlehhe	swór hóf hlóh	sworen hafen hleahhen	swear heave laugh

### SECOND PERIOD.

Pres.	PRET.	Р. Р.	
gulle, 5elle	goll (pl. gollen, gullen)	30len	sing, yell
fare	for	faren	go, fare
scape	scop	scæpen, scapen	shape
grave	grof	graven	grave
lade	[lod]	laden	lade
wade	wod	waden	go
wasshe	wesh, weosch, weis, wuesch	washen, waschen	wash
bake	bok, book	baken	bake
(for)sake	-soc	-saken	forsake
take	toc	taken	take
ake	oc		ache
wakie, wake	woc	waken	wake
drage, drawe	drog, drug (pl. drowen)		draw 1
sle	sloh, slæh, slog, slug, slouh (pl. slowen)		slay
fle, fla, flo	flo3	vla3en	flay
waxe	weox, wex, wax		wax
stand	stod	standen	stand
swerie	swor	sworen	swear
stepe	stop	stepen	step
hæve, hefe	heaf, hæf, hef, hof, heof	heoven, hofen, hoven	heave
leh3e	loh	lozen, lowen	laugh

Weak perfects:—takede (La3.) = toc; hefed = hof (O.F. Hom., Second Series); wakeden = woc (La3. Text B).

# THIRD PERIOD.

Pres.	Pret.	P. P.	
gale	3al, 30l		sing, yell
stonde	stod	standen, stonden	
fare	for	faren	fare
swere	swor, swar	sworen, sworn	swear
schape	schop	schapen	shape
wade	wed		go
washe	wesch, wosch	waschen	wash
schake	schok	schaken	shake
ake	ok	(oken)	ache
forsake .	forsok	forsaken	forsake
take	tok	taken	take
wake	wok	waken	wake
drawe	drow, drouh, drew	drawen	draw
waxe, wexe	wax, wex	waxen, woxen	wax
sle, sla, slo	slow, slogh, slouh, slou	slawen, slain	slay
fle, fla, flo, flaze	flogh, flouh, vlca3	flain, flawen	flay
lighe, lawghe, hleze	low, low3		laugh
stepe	step, stap	stopen, stoupen	step
hefe, hebbe	hof	hoven, heven	heave

# FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
stonde, stande	stod, stood	stonden, standen	stand
swere, sweere	swer, swor, swoo	r sworen	swear
fare	for	faren, foren	go, fare
shape	shop	shapen	shape
stepe	haf, hef, hof	stopen, stoupen	step
heue		hoven	heave
grave	(grof)	graven	grave
lade	lade	laden	load
schave	schoof	schaven, schover	wash
wasche	wesch, wosch,	waschen	
bake	book	baken	bake
schake	schok, schook	schaken	shake
forsake	forsok	forsaken	forsake
take	tok, took	taken	take
wake	wook	waken	wake
ake, aake, ache	ok	—	ache
draw	dro3, drow, drowh, drew, drouh	drawen	draw

Pres.	PRET.	P. P.	
gnaw	gnew, gnow	gnawen	gnaw
laghe, lawe, ley3	e low, low3, lo3, lough, loow3	lazen	laugh
sle, slea, sla	sloz, slow, slew, slewz	slain, slawen, slawn	slay
fle, flo	flouh	flain	flay
wexe, waxe	wox, wax, wex, wæex	woxen, waxen, wexen	wax

- (1) Weak perfects:—30/lide, 3ellide, shapide, stept, herede, graved, schaved, waschede, bakede, shockide, shakide, wakide, akide, leizede, drawede, waxed.
- (2) Weak p.p.: -heved, graved, waischid, waked, shapid, awakid.

#### DIVISION II. Class V.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

Pres. i.	Pret. á.	PL. <i>i</i> .	P. P. i.	
dwine	dwán	dwinon	dwinen	dwindle
gíne	gán	ginon	ginen	yawn
hríne	hrán	hrinon	hrinen	touch
hwine	hwán	hwinon	hwinen	whiz
scíne	scán	scinon	scinen	shine
grípe	grap	gripon	gripen	gripe
nípe	náp	nipon	nipen	darken
rípe	ráp	ripon	ripen	reap
to-slipe	-sláp	-slipon	-slipen	dissolve
be-lífe	-láf	-lifon	-lifen	remain
clífe	cláf	clifon	clifen	cleave
drífe	dráf	drifon	drifen	drive
scrífe	scráf	scrifo <b>n</b>	scrifen	shrive
slífe	sláf	slifon	slifen	split
swífe	swáf	swifo <b>n</b>	swifen	sweep, tur
spíwe	spáw	spiwo <b>n</b>	spiwe <b>n</b>	spew
bíte	bát	biton	biten	bite
flíte	flát	fliton	fliten	flite, strive
hníte	hnát	hnito <b>n</b>	hniten	butt
slíte	slát	sliton	sliten	slit
smíte	smát	smito <b>n</b>	smite <b>n</b>	smite '
ðwíte	ðwát	<b>T</b> witon	ðwiten	cut off
wíte	wát	witon	witen	go
wlíte	wlát	wliton	wliten	look
write	wrát	writon	writen	write

PRES. f. PRE	т. <i>á</i> . Р. <i>i</i> .	P.P.	
bíde bác	d bidon	biden	bide
cíde các		ciden	chide
glíd <b>e glá</b>			glide
gníde gna	id gnidor	n gniden	rub
hlíde hlá	d hlidon		cover
ríde rád		riden	ride
slíde slá		sliden	slide
stride stra			stride
líðe láð		liden	sail
scríðe scrí			go
sníðe sná	න් snidon	sniden	slit
wriðe wra	ið wridor	n wriden	writhe,
•			wreathe
wriðe <b>w</b> rá			bud, grow
á-gríse -gra a-ríse rás	ίs -grison	grisen -	dread
		risen	rise
blíce blá	e blicon	blicen	shine
sice sác	sicon	sicen	sigh
snice sná		snicen	sneak
strice strá			go
swice swá		swicen	deceive
wice was		wicen	yield
hnige hná			$\operatorname{nod}$
míge mál	h migon	migen	water
sige sáh	sigon	sigen	sink
stige stál		stigen	ascend
wige wáł		wigen	fight
lihe láh	(lág) ligon	ligen	lend, give
síhe (séo) sáh	sigon	sigen	strain
wrihe (wréo) wrá	h (wréah) wrigon	wrogen,	wri- cower
		gen	

### SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	Р. г.	
chine	chan, chon		chinen	split
scine	scæn, son (= shon)	shinen	shinen	shine
tine	ran		rinen	touch
gripe	grap, grop, græp	gripen	gripen	gripe
ripe	rop	ripen	ripen	reap
drive	draf, drof, dræf	drifen	driven, drifen	drive
þrife	þraf	þrifen	þrifen	thrive
bite	bat, bot	biten	biten	bite
schrive	schrof	schriven	schriven	shrive
slite	slat	sliten	sliten	slit
strive	strof	striven	striven	strive

Pres.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
smite	smat, smot, smæt	smiten	smiten	smite
write	wrat, wrot	writen	writen	write
wite	wat	witen	witen	go
wlite	wlæt			ľook
a-bide	-bad, -bod	-biden	-biden	abide
stride	strad			strive
glide	glad, glæd, glod	gliden	gliden	glide
ride	rad, rod, ræd	riden	riden	ride
gnide	gnad		gniden	rub
liðe	lað, læð	<del>-</del>	liðen	şail
sniðe	snæd, snæð	sniðen	sniðen	cut
scribe	scrað, scroð	scriðen	scriðen	go
wriðe	wræd		wriðen	writhe
a-rise	-ras, -ros, -ræs	-risen	-risen	rise
a-grise	-gras, -gros		-grisen	dread
strike	strak	striken	-striken	go
swike	swac	swiken	swiken	deceive
si3e	sah, seh, soh	si3en	si3en	sink
sti <sub>5</sub> e	steih, ste3, stah stæh	sti3en	stizen, stien	ascend
teo	tah, tæh, teh			accuse
þeo	þæh, þeg, þeah	þi zen	þozen, þowen	grow, thrive
wreo	wreih	wri3en, wrien	wrizen, wrien	cover

Weak forms—livede, live = lav (Laz.); bilæfde = belaf, (Laz.); bilefed (p.p. Orm.); bilefde (Ancren Riwle); zeonede zenede (from geonian, ginian, to yawn—a weak verb) occurs in St. Marherete.

### THIRD PERIOD

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
chine schine ripe, repe gripe drife, drive schrive (to) rive prife, thrive bite	chon, chan schon [rop] grop draf, drof schrof -rof throf bot, bat	schinen gripen driven schriven -riven thrifen biten	chinen schinen ropen gripen driven schrifen -riven thrifen biten	split shine reap gripe drive shrive rive thrive bite strive
flite smite	flot smat, smot	smiten	smiten	smite

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	Р. р.	
write	wrat, wrot	writen	writen	write
abide	abad, abod	abiden	abiden	abide
ride	rad, rod	riden	riden	ride
	<u>-</u>		chidden	chide
gnide	gnad	gniden	gniden	rub
stride	strad, strod	striden	striden	strive
writhe	wroþ		wriþen	writhe
rise	ras, ros	risen	risen	rise
agrise	agros	agrisen	agrisen	dread
strice	strek	*****		go
sti 3e	ste3, stegh, stey,		stizen	ascend
•	stea 3			
wre	wreigh	***	wro3en	cover

- (1) Weak perfects—gripte, griped, schinde, chidde, biswiked, bilifte, belafte, blefede.
- (2) Some singular forms (especially in Northern writers) have a mute e, as smate, bate, abade, abode.
- (3) Northern writers keep a (or o) in the plural instead of i, as ras ris(en).

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES. schine repe dryve shryve stryve thrive byte flite smyte	PRET. schoon drof, draf shrof strof, stroof throf bot, boot, bat flot smot, smoot,	PL, shinen driven shriven striven thriven biten smiten	P. P. shinen ropen driven shriven striven thriven biten smiten	shine reap drive shrive strive thrive bite strive smite
wryte thwite bide chide glide ryde slyde stride wrythe	smat wrot, wroot, wrat bod, bood, bad  glod, glood rod, rood, rad slood strad wrooth		writen thwiten biden chidden gliden riden sliden writhen, wrethen	write cut bide chide glide ride slide stride writhe

Pres.	PRET.	PL.	Р. р.	
ryse	ros, roos, ras	risen	risen	rise
(a)grise	-gros		-grisen	dread
steze, stye	stey, steiz, stigh	sti zen	sti zen	ascend
wrie			wrien	cover

Weak perfects—dwynede, agriside, sykide, stiged (Wickliffe); p.p. dwined (Chaucer).
In "Alliterative Pocms" we find:—fine, to cease, with a

In "Alliterative Poems" we find:—fine, to cease, with a strong perf. fon; and trine, to go (of Norse origin), with perf. tron.

# DIVISION II. Class VI.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

Pres. 60 (ú).	Pret. ća.	PL. u.	P. P. o.	
<b>c</b> réope	<b>c</b> réap	crupon	cropen	creep
dréope	dréap	drupon	dropen	drop
géope	géap	gupon	gopen	take up
slúpe	sléap	slupon	slopen	di <b>s</b> solve
súpe	séap	supon	sopen	sup
cléofe	cléaf	clufon	clofen	cleave
dúfe	déaf	<b>du</b> fo <b>n</b>	dofen	dive
scúfe	scéaf	scufon	scofen	shove
rćofe	réaf	rufon	rofen	reave
bréowe	bréaw	bruwo <b>n</b>	browen	brew
céowe	céaw	cuwon	cowen	chew
hréowe	hréaw	hruwon	hrowen	reu
þréo <b>we</b>	þréaw	þruwon	þrowen	throe
bréote	bréat	bruton	broten	break
fléote	fléat	fluton	floten	float
géote	géat	guton	goten	pour
gréote	gréat	gruton	groten	weep
ĥléote	hléat	hluton	hloten	cast lots
hrúte	hréat	hruton	hroten	snore
lúte	léat	luton	loten	lout, bow
néote	néat	nuton	noten	enjoy
réote	réat	ruton ,	roten	fall
scéote	scéat	scuton	scoten	shoot
<b>ő</b> éote	ðéat	ðuton	doten	howl
á-ðreote	-ðréat	-ðruton	-ðroten	loathe, irk
béode	béad	budon	boden	bid
créode	créad	crudon	croden	sound
léodc	léad	ludon	loden	grow
reode	réad	rudon	roden	redden
strúde	stréad	strudon	stroden	despoil

Pres. eo (ú).	PRET. éa.	PL. <i>u</i> .	P. p. o.	
á-bréoðe	-bréað	-bruðon	-broden	degenerate
hréoðe	hréað	hrudon	hroden	adorn
séobe	séað	sudon	soden	seethe
céose	<b>c</b> éas	curon	coren	choose
dréose	dréas	druron	droren	mourn
fréos <b>e</b>	fréas	fruron	froren	freeze
be-g <b>ré</b> ose	-gréas	-gruron	-groren	frighten
hréose	hréas	hruron	hroren	rush
for-léose	-léas	-luron	-loren	lose
brúce	bréac	brucon	brocen	brook, use
lúce	léac	lucon	locen	lock
réoce .	réac	rucon	rocen	reek
sméoce	sméac	smucon	smocen	smoke
súce	séao	sucon	socen	suck
búge	béah	bugon	bogen	$\mathbf{bow}$
drćoge	dréah	drugon	drogen	suffer
fléoge	fléah	flugon	flogen	fly
léoge	léah	lugon	logen	lie
smuge	sméah	smugon	smogen	creep
fléo	fléah	flugon	flogen	flee
téo	téah	tugon	togen	draw
ðéo ,	<b>Téah</b>	dugon	තිogen	thrive
wréo	wréah	wrugon	wrogen	cover

### SECOND PERIOD.

Pres.	Pret.	PL.	P. P.	
crepe	crap, crep	crupon	cropen	creep
deofe	deæf, def			dive
scuve	scaf, scæf, scef	scu <b>v</b> en, schoven	schoven	shove
cleove	clæf	cluven, clufen	cloven, clofen	cleave
brewe	brew	ciaicii	browen	brew
reowe	ræw, rew, reuw,			rue
geote	gæt, get	guten	goten	pour
sceote	sceat, scæt, scheat, schet	scuten	scoten	shoot
vlcote, flete	flet, flæt	fluten	floten	float
lute	leat	luten	loten	bow
DIGGE	bæd, bad, bed bead	buden, biden	boden, beden beoden	bid
for-beode	-bæd, -bad, -bead	-buden	-boden	forbid
cheose	chæs, ches	curen, chosen	coren, chosen	choose

PRES.	PRET.	Pt	Р.р.	
frese			froren	freeze
reose, rese	ræs, res			rush
leose	læs, les, lees, leas	loren, luren	loren	lose
seobe	seb	suden	soden	seethe
luke	læc, lok	luken	loken	lock
suke	sæc, soc	suken	soken	suck
buze, buwe	bæh, bah, beh, beih	bu 3en	bo5en	bow, bend
drize	dreih, dreg	drozen	drozen, drohen	suffer
lize, leze, luze	læh, Ích	lu 3en	lo3en	lie
fleo	flæh, fleh, fleih	flusen, fluwen	fluzen, flozen	fly
fleo	flæh, fleh, fleah, fleih, flei	flozen, flow- en, fluen	flozen, flowen	flee

# THIRD PERIOD.

Pres.	Pret.	PL.	P.P.	
crepe	creap	cropen	cropen	creep
cleve	clef, cleef	cloven	cloven	cleave
brewe	brew	browen	browen	brew
schete	schet, schot, scheat, sset	schoten	schoten, schotten	
schuve	schef, schof	schoven	schoven	shove
brewe	brew		browen	brew
rewe	reu			rue
3ete	yhet, zet	30ten	30ten, 3et(en)	pour
loute, lute, lote	leat	louten	louten, loten	bow
flete	flet		floten	float
bede	bed, bad	boden	boden, beden	bid
sebe .	seb, seath, sod	soden	soden, sodden	seethe
chese, chese	ches, cheas	chosen	chosen, corn,	choose
lese	les, lyeas, lees	lesen, losen, loren	losen, loren, lorn	lose
frese	fres	frosen	frosen, froren	freeze
loke, luke	leac, lok	loken	loken	look
a-buze, abowe	-beaz	-bowen	-bozen, -bowen	bow
lize	leigh		lowen	lie
fle, flize	fleh, fley, flegh	flowen	flowen •	∙9y
fle, flese	flew, fleu, fley	flowen	flowen	flee
dri3e	dregh			suffer
-				_

Weak forms: -- lost, lest, (bi)louked, bowed, lighed, fled, schette

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	Р. Р.	
crepe	crop (crope)	cropen	cropen	creep
soupe	soop, sop	_	sopen	sup
clyve, cle <b>ve</b>	cleef, clef	cloven,	cloven	cleave
		cleven		
schove	schof		schoven	shove
brewe	brew		browen	brew
for-bede	-beed, -bad	-bede <b>n</b>	-boden, -biden, -beden	bid
seth <b>e</b>	seth		soden, sothen	seethe
3cete, yete	30t	distribution.	30ten	pour
schete •	schete		schoten	shoot
flete	flet, fleet, flot			float
chese	ches, chees, chos	chosen, chesen	chosen	choose
frese	frees, fres	frosen	frosen, froren	freeze
leese	les, lees	losen	losen, loren	lose
brouke	broke			brook (enjoy)
loke	lek	-	loken	lock
lize, lie	lei;		lowen	lie
flee, fleze, flieze	flei3, flew, flegh, fleight	flewen	flowen	fly
flee, flizhe	fleiz, flew	flowen	flowen	flee

- (1) Weak preterites:—brewede, sethede, zetide, zotte, schotte, fletide, lowtide, cheside, freside, leste, bowide, liede, fledde.
- (2) Weak p.p.:—schot, cleft, lowtid, lost, lest, lyed, fled, ylokked, bowid, soupide.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF WEAK VERBS.

#### FIRST PERIOD.

#### Class I.

- (1) Radical short.—The first class has the connecting vowel e (for prehistoric i, representing the stem-suffix -jo-), and contains verbs with short and long radical vowels (these having umlaut), as ner-e-de (perf.), ner-e-d (p.p.).
- (2) Radical long.—The connecting vowel is lost in the preterites of those verbs with long radicals.

INF.	PRET.	P. p.	
dæl-an	dæl-de	gedæl-ed	divide
mæn-an	mứn-de	m:én-ed	lament
læd-an	læd-de	l:éd-ed	lead
dém-an	dém-de	dém-ed	deem
féd-an	féd-de	féd-ed	feed
&c.	&c.	&c.	

The preterite and p.p. of the following verbs retain the original radical vowel ( $\delta$ ) of the stem:—

séc-an	sóh-te		sóh-t	seek
réc-an	róh-te	•	róh-t	reck

(3) Stems ending in mn, ng, rm, rn, ld, nd, rd, lose the connecting vowel e in the preterite.

The preterites of stems in mn drop n before de.

nemn-an	nem-de	nemn-e-d	name
spreng-an	spreng-de	spreng-e-d	spring
bærn-an	bærn-de	bærn-e-d	burn
styrm-an	styrm-de	styrm-e-d	storm

(4) Stems ending (through gemination) in 11, mm, ss, dd, cg, co, pp, (for lj, mj, sj, dj, gj, cj, pj), have no connecting vowel in the preterite.

wemm-an	wem-de	wemm-e-d	defile
cenn-an	cen-de	cenn-e-d	bring forth
spill-an	spil-de	spill-e-d	spill
áhredd-an	áhred-de	áhredd-e-d	rescue
lecg-an	leg-de	leg-e-d	lay

Some verbs in the preterite and p.p. retain the *radical* vowel (a) of the stem.

INF.	PERF.	P. P.	
cwell-an	cweal-de	cweal-d	kill
sell-an	seal-de	seal-d, -sald	sell
tell-an	teal-de	teal-d	tell
recc-an	reah-te	reah-t	reck
strecc-an	streh-te (streahte	) streah-t	stretch
wecc-an	weah-te	weah-t	arouse

In the following verbs (with stems in ld, nd, rd, nt, rt, fl, st, ht) the connecting vowel is lost, and the suffix d of the preterite is assimilated to the final dental of the stem, so that d+de=de.

INF.	PERF.	Р. р.	
scild-an	scild-e	scild-ed	shield
send-an	send-e	send-ed	send
gyrd-an	gyrd-e	gyrd-ed	gird
stylt-an	stylt-e	stylt-ed	stand astonished
hyrt-an	hyrt-e	hyrt-ed	hearten
mynt-an	mynt-e	mynt-ed	purpose
hæft-an	hæft-e	hæft-ed	bind
riht-an	riht-e	riht-ed	set right
rest-an	rest-e	rest-ed	rest

# D becomes t when added to stems ending in p, t, nc, s, $\varepsilon$

dypp-an	dyp-te	dypp-ed	dip
sett-an	set-te	sett-ed, set	set
drenc-an	drenc-te	drenc-ed	drink
cyss-an	cys-te	cyss-ed	kiss
líx-an	líx-te	líx-ed	shine

When t is added to stems in  $\alpha$ , the pret. and p.p. have only a single h before the suffix.

rec <b>c</b> -an	reah-te	reah-t	reck
wecc-an	weah-te	weah-t	arouse
strecc-an	streah-te	streah-t	stretch

In verbs with long stems ending in a sharp mute, d in the pret, becomes  $t_1$  as—

ræp-an	ræp-te	rǽp-ed	reap
mét-an	mét-te	mét-ed	meet

# C becomes h before t, as—

tæc-an tæh-te	t:éh-t	teach
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#### Class II.

The second class of weak verbs has o for its connecting vowel, as *lufian*, to love; perf. *luf-o-de*; p.p. *luf-od*.

This o is weakened to a, u, and e, as :—

\(\textit{\sigma} rowade = \textit{\sigma} row-o-de, \) suffered. cleopade and cleopede = cleopode, called. singude = singude, sinned.

#### SUBSEQUENT PERIODS.

In the Second and subsequent periods, the two conjugations are mixed up, because the connecting vowel o has become e.

In the earlier part of this period we find perfects in -ode, -ude, side by side with -ede; they are to be regarded as exceptional forms.

# (1) Radical short.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

INF.	Pret.	P.P.	
sweven	swev-e-de	iswev-ed	sleep
bankien	þank-e-de	iþank-ed	thank

In the Third and Fourth periods we find -id and -ud in the preterite tense and passive participle, as well as -ede, -de. The Fourth period keeps the connecting vowel e, but frequently drops e of the suffix de.

(2) Radical long.—The connecting vowel disappears in long syllable-stems, and d is added immediately to the verbal stem.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

Inf.	PRET.	Р. Р.	
dælen	dæl-de, del-de	idel-ed	divide
demen	dem-de	idem-ed	deem
lenen	len-de	ilen-ed	lend
heren	her-de	iher-d	hear
leden, læden	led-de	ilæ-d, ile-d	lead
feden	fed-de	ifed	feed

### THIRD AND FOURTH PERIODS.

Inf.	PRET.	P.P.	
dele	del-de	deled	🌶 divide
deme	dem-de	dem-d	deem
lede	led-de, lad-de	led, lad	lead
drede	dred-de, drad-de	dred, drad	dread
&c.	&c.	&c.	

(3) The suffix d assimilates to the d of the combination -ld, -nd (-ld); -rt, -st, -lt, -tt.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

Inf.	PRET.	P. P.	
bulden	bulde	buld	build
senden	sende	isend	send
wenden	wende	iwend $^2$	turn
setten	sette	iset	set
resten	reste	irest •	rest
hurten "	hurte	ihurt	hurt
casten	caste	icast	cast

#### THIRD PERIOD.

INF.	Pret.	P. P.	
bulden	bulde	ibuld	build
senden	sende	isend	send
casten	caste	icast	cast
setten	sette	iset	set
&c.	&c.	&c.	

# In Northern writers we find t often replacing d, as

sende	sent(e)	sent	send
wende	went(e)	went	wend, go

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

# The d is now regularly converted into t, as—

INF.	PRET.	P. P.	
blenden	blente, blent	blent	blend

(4) The suffix -d is changed into -t after p, f, ch, cch, ss, t; ch becomes h(3) before te; nch becomes ng or is vocalised before te.

<sup>1</sup> Or we may consider that the d of -ld, -nd, &c. is dropped.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In verbs of this class La<sub>5</sub>amon often replaces d by t, as, wenden, wente, iwent.

#### SECOND PERIOD.

	INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
(1)	kepen	kepte	ikept	keep .
	cussen	custe	icust	kiss
	cutten	cutte	icut	cut
	putten	putte	iput	put
	ræcchen	ræhte, rahte	iraht	explain
	∫cacchen ∖kecchen	cahte keihte, cauhte	icaht ikeiht	catch
	tæchen smecchen lacchen	tahte smeihte lahte•	itaht ismeeched ilaht	teach taste, smack seize
(2)	drenchen mengen	drengte, dreinte meinde	adreint imeind	drench mingle

In the following verbs there is a return to the radical vowel of the stem:—

(3) ∫ sæchen sechen	sohte souhte	isoht ) isouht (	seek
recchen	rohte (rehte)	iroht	reck
{ strecchen stræcchen	streahte (streihte)	istreiht	stretch
tellen sellen	talde, tolde sælde, salde, solde	itald, itold, teld iseld, isald, isold	

### THIRD PERIOD.

	INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
(1)		kepte	ikept, kept	keep
	lefen	lefte (left)	ileft, left	leave
	refen	refte (reft)	ireft, reft	(be)reave
	wefen	wefte (weft)	iweft, weft	weave
	cacchen	cazte	icazt, cazt	catch
	clenchen	cleinte, clente	iclemt, iclent	clench
	techen	tau3te, te13te, tauhte (taght)	itauzt, tauzt	teach
(2)	drenchen	dreynte	dreynt	drown
(3)	sechen	so3te, souhte (souht)	iso3t, so3t	seek
	rechen	ro3te		reck ι
	rechen	rauhte, reiste, rauste, raughte		reach
	tellen '	tolde, tald		tell
	sellen	solde	isold, sold	sell

# The Ayenbite keeps the old ea as:-

INF.	PRET.	Р. р.	
telle zelle	tealde zealde	yteald, tald yzeald, zald	tell sell
	bearde	jecara, ema	SCIL

#### FOURTH PERIOD.

	INF.	Pret.	P.P.	
(1)	kepen	kepte (kepide)	kept	keep
	leeven, leven	lefte, lafte (laft)	left, laft	leave
	refen	refte, rafte (raft)	raft (refed)	be-reave
	greten	grette	gret	greet
	sweten	swatte, swette	swet, swat	sweat
	meeten	mette	met	meet
	kepen	keste, kiste	kest, kist	kiss
	twicchen	twight(e)	twight	twitch
	picchen	pight(e)	pight	pitch
	plicchen	plight(e)	plight	pluck
	techen	tougte, tauste	toust, taust	teach
	cacche	causte, caughte	cast, caust,	catch
	lachen	lauzte	lau5t	scize
(2)	blenchen guenchen	bleynt(e), blent(e) queinte	queint	blench quench
	- drenchen	dreint(e)	dreint	drench

# The g in ng becomes vocalised before the suffix d or t.

	INF.	PRET.	Р.Р.	
	sprengen	spreynde, spreynte,	spreynt, spreyned	sprinkle
	mengen	sprengide meynde, meynte, myngede		mingle
	sengen	(seynde)	seynd, seind	singe
(3)	sechen be-sechen recchen	souste -souste rouste, roughte,	sou3t -sou5t rau3t, rou5t	seek beseech reck
	reche strecche biggen meken illen	rauste rauste strauhte, strauste bouste smaughte tolde, telde soold, selde, solde, salde	rau3t straught, strau3t bou5t told, teld, tald sold, seld, sald	reach stretch buy smack tell sell

malous forms are treated along with their modern entatives; see Anomalous Verbs, pp. 264 ff.

#### ADVERBS.

#### I. Substantive.

#### (a) GENITIVE.

First period.—Dæges (of a day), forð-dæges (late in the day), sumeres and winteres (summer and winter), nihtes (of a night), néades (needs), sóðes (of a truth), &c.

Second period.—Fordaies, daies (deies), nihtes, "aday and nyhtes" (daies and nihtes), lifes (alive), deathes (dead), nedes (needs), winteres, sumeres, willes (willingly), waldes (purposely), unwaldes (accidentally), sodes (of a truth), his ponkes (of his own accord), hwiles (hwils), the hwiles, oderwhiles (sometimes), summes weis, odres weis (oderweis), nanes weis, alles weis, allegates (always), sodrihtes (truly), halfinges (by half), &c.

Third Period.—Dayes, nyhtes, aniztes, ponkes, unponkes, nedes, hwiles, &c.

Fourth Period.—Adayes, nedes, other-weies, algates (always), eggelinges, hedlynges (headlong), noselynges, sidelonges, grovelonges, &c.

# (b) DATIVE AND INSTRUMENTAL.

First Period.—Hwilum (whilom), stundum (at times), dagum (by day), nahtum (by night), stundmálum (by little times, at spare times), næhtum (nightly), &c.

Second Period.—Nede (of necessity), whilum (hwilem, hwilen, whilen), wuke-mælum (weekly), drope-mele (drop-meal), lim-mele (limb-meal), wunder=wundrum (wonderfully).

Third Period.—Whilom, while, lym-mele, pecemele, stumele, wonder, cuppemele, poundmele, floc-mele (by comp

Fourth Period.—Whilom, gobbetmele, pecemel, by pea (piecemeal), hipyll-melum (by heaps), stowndmeel, lymparcel-mele, &c.

#### (c) ACCUSATIVE.

First Period.—Hám (home), éast, west, súð, norð, ealne weg (alway), ðá hwíle (whilst), sume hwíle (somewhile), dél, sumne dél (somedeal), wiht, á-wiht (something, somewhat), óðre wísan (otherwise), sume wísan (somewise), sóð (truth), nánigðing (nought), &c.

Second Period.—Ham, hom, nord, east (cest), sud, west, sumedale, sumdel, what-gate, allegate, oper-gate, peo hwile (the while), otherhwile, sumewhile, oper (= operwise), fulsod, eawiht (aught), &c.

Third Period.—Hom, norp, est, west, soup, soudel, 03t, ilka dele, alwei, alnewey, often-tide, sumhwile, operhwile, thus-gate, allegate, swagate, &c.

Fourth Period.—Hom, algate (allegate), alway, sometime, somdel, somdele, gretdel, everydel, aust, operwise, &c.

### (d) Prepositional Forms.

First Period.—On weg (away), on buc, underbuc (aback), on-géan (against, opposite); togéanes (against), tó-éfenes (in the evening), on-dæge (a-day), on-niht (anight), tó-dæge (to-day), tó-nihte (to-night), on érne mergen (carly mornings), on morgen (a-mornings), on midne-dæg (at mid-day), édúne (down), on midre nihte (at mid-night), &c.

Second Period.—Umbe-stunde, umbe-hwile (at intervals); bysydes, biside, bisiden, bisides; bi-daye, bi-nyhte; bihwlves (beside); bilife, bilifes (quickly); adun (down), a-bac, abacch; on-zwn, azwn, azein, tô-zeines (against, towards); adwi, adai, tt, an-hond, an-efne (at eventide); an-ende, on-ende ly); a-lyve, a-marwe, a-marzen, a-morwe, a-morze (orrow); arewen (arow), a seoven nihte (a sennight); nawei, awai (away); an erne morew (on early morrow); se, a pes half (on this side of); oslæpe (asleep); on s, atten ende, at pen ende (at last); at morwhen, at wen, to-marhen, to morwe, to-marewenc, to-niht, to-daie, re, to-sumere, &c., to-sobe (truly), bi dages, by nyhtes, &c.

Third Period.—Abak, adoun, afelde, agrund, alonde, awey, amorwe, anyzt, awynter, ayen, ayenward, an haste, an hond, on hize, onlive, on niztes, on dayes, on morwe, on peces; bilife, bilyve, biside, bysydes, bicas, becas (accidentally), attenende, bynorpe, bysoupe, by este, by weste, uphap, upon hast, forcas, forsope, to-day, to-nyzt, to-morn, teve (to-eve), insped (speedily), at ese, &c.

Fourth Period.—Umbe-stoundes, in-stoundes (at intervals), um-hwile, adoun, abak, asyde (asidishalf), afire, azen, amorewe, anight, afote (on fote), arow, aslope, on egge (on edge), onsydes, on sidishand (aside), a-dregh, o-dregh, on-drez (aside); beforehand, to-morwe, to-morn, to-zere, &c.

### II. Adjective.

(1) With final -e.

First Period.—Fæst-e, hlúd-e, biter-lic-e, &c.

Second Period.—Feste, lhude, ille, ufele, depe, swipe, vastliche, blipelike, baldeliz, &c.

Third Period.—Wide, side, dere, depe, harde, unepe, nobliche, &c.

In the Northern dialects we find -like and -ly for -liche.

Fourth Period.—Faste, fulle, righte, hevenlich, hevenliche, scharply, passendli, felendly, &c.

(2) In the comparative and superlative degrees, adjectives (First period) end in -or and -ost, without any other inflexion, as geornor (more diligent), fiestor (faster), éadelicor (more easily), heardost (hardest), éadelicost (easiest). Some few comparatives drop the suffix, as leng (longer), bet (better), ma (more), ép (easier).

In the subsequent periods, adverbs form their comparatives in -ere (-er, -or, -ur); superlatives in -este (-est)

The comparative of words in -liche becomes -

- (a) -liker, -luker, -loker, -laker.
- (b) -lyer.

The superlative of adjectives in -liche ends in-

- (a) -likest, -lukest, -lokest, -lakest.
- (b) -lyest. Cp. depliker, gerenlukor, deorluker, blipeloker, fellaker (more fiercely), &c.

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In the Fourth period -lyer predominates.

We also find as late as Chaucer the shortened comparatives bet, mo, leng.

(3) Many adjectives are used as adverbs, especially those with irregular comparisons.

First Period.—Wela, wel (well), yfele (ill), lytle, lytlum (little), micles, miclum (much), néah, nih (nigh, near), feor (far), forð (forth), late, latan (late), bet (better), þe bet (the better), betst (best), wyrs (worse), wyrst (worst), þy læs (the less), má (more), &c.

Subsequent Periods.—Ufele, uvele, ille (ill), lute, lyte, lytyl, bet, best, worse, wurst, lasse, lesse, lest, ma, mare, more, &c., fer, neor, ner, nerre, nyz, nexst, nest, forth, forther, late later, latst, ner pe later, never the later, &c.

# (4) Case-endings:-

# (a) GENITIVE.

First Period.—pweorhes (across), ealles (altogether), egnes, emnes (evenly), micles (greatly), elles (else), &c.

Adverbs in -weards (-wards), &c.

Second Period.—Alles, elles, rihtes, duvel-rihtes (with a dive), adunrihtes, alrihtes, ananrihtes, fordrihtes, perihtes, upwardes, hiderwardes, fordwardes, eftsones, mucheles, cwices (alive), alunges (altogether), adunwardes, azeinwardes, &c.

ird Period.—Alles, elles, eftsones, amiddes, riztes, iztes, aweiwardes (away), &c.

urth Period.—Elles, unepes, unwares, hiderwardes, rdes, forwardes, halfinges, endlonges, afterwardes, rdes, uprihtes, &c.

### (b) DATIVE.

First Period.—*Lytlum* (little), *miclum* (greatly, much), *furpum* (even), &c.

Second Period.—Lutlen, lytlen, muchele, forpe, seldum, selden, selde, ane (alone), &c.

Third Period.—Lytlen, muchele, moche, selde, selden, one, &c.

Fourth Period.—Lytlen, lytlum, muche, muchel, &c.

#### (c) ACCUSATIVE.

First Period.—Ær (ere), eal (all), néah (nigh), nóh, genóh (enough), feor (far), lyt, lytel, riht; adverbs in -weard (ward), &c.

Second Period.—Al, ar, er (ere); a-neoh, neh (nigh), inoh (enough); hiderward, zeondward, hinward (within), hiderward, forpward, fororiht, anonriht, aweiward, amiddeward, &c.

Third Period.—Al; er, ar, or (ere); neh, ny3, ri3t, fer, yno3, imydward, piderward, awkeward (= wrongly), forpriht, &c.

Fourth Period.—Al; er, or; negh, ny3; afer, rizt, ynow; estward, to-warde, &c.

## (d) PREPOSITIONAL.

First Period.—On-middum (amidst), on-efen (anent), on-pweorh (across), on-geador (together), on-idel (in vain), on-sundrum (asunder), on-eornost (in earnest), tô-middes (amidst), tô-weardes (towards), tô-gædere (together), tô-so (together), ofer-eall (everywhere), ælgædere (together) anfealdum (singly), &c.

Second Period.—Amidden (amid), amiddes, (nigh), a-widere (against), a newist, a-newest (fas near), ariht, anheh (on high), alast, anewe, an-anrih

uidere (against), on-sunder, on oper (otherwise), on-idel, in-idel, to-samen, to-somne, to-guederes, togedere; to-gode (gratuitously), overal, of lah (from below), of feor, of feorren (afar), of heh (from on high), mid-rihte (rightly), atte laste, &c.

Third Period.—Alast, alefte, amidde, amiddes, in-middes, anhey, on hie, an heiz, on heiz, abrod, abrood, on-ferrum, an even (at last), anazt (to nought), to gedere, togedere, togederes, overal, uppon heiz, at al, at alle (in all things = alles), at alle riztes, anonriztes, to-riztes, upriztes, at arst, atte fulle, ate laste, atte laste, atte best, ate verst (at first), albidene, bydene (=immediately), &c.

Fourth Period.—Abrood, alarge, afer, aferre, anhez, in melle, amel (amid), on rounde, in myddes, in mydde; in seme (together), on rizt, on-wyde, to-geder, in-idel, al., at he fulle; overthwart, endlonge, endlonges, &c.

#### III. Numeral.

First Period.—Æne (once), éninga, án-unga (entirely), on-án (continually, once for all), for án (for ever), on áne (at same time, together), twíwa (twice), betwih (between), þríga, þríwa (thrice), &c.

Second Period.—Ene, anes, enes, twies, tweien, tweie, prizes, at anes, at eanes, ansibe (once), anan, al onan, a twa, a two, on twinne, on pre, betweenen, betweenen, bitwixen, to pan ane, to pan anes, for pe nanes, for pan one, &c.

Third Period.—Ene, ones, enes, anes, twie, thrie, twyes, anon; in on (continually), at one, at on, at ene, atwo, atwinne, asevene, bytweyne, for he nones, &c.

urth Period.—Anes, ones, twyes, thries, twye, three, ato, in two, in on, atone, at ene, after on, bytwene, for es, &c.

## IV. Adverbs formed from Particles.

FIRST PER	. SECOND PER.	THIRD PE	r. Fourth Pi	ER.
æft, eft æfter æfterward	eft efter, after efterward (adv. & prep.)	eft after efterward	efte, eft aftre, after	eft, aft after afterward
æftan wið-æftan	— —	efterþanne nevereft		after that never after
be-æftan	bi-æften, bæftan		baft	abaft
bí, big	bi, be	by, bi, be	by, be for-by	by past; near
fore 	fore forn-on, forn-ar (as before)	fore 1 —	pagements.	before —
foran be-foran	foren bi-foren, bi ⁄oren	bivoren, biforen,	beforn, by- fore, bifore	
1.45		byfore, beforn		
tó-foran wið-foran				(here)to-fore
	avoreward	Access		forward
forð	forð, vorð forð-rihte	forth, vorth	forth	forth forth-right
	forð-ward	forð-ward		forward
	swire-forð	forth-with	_	before neck-forth
	for-to, for-te,	forte, fort		until
		her-forb		
	foropat	þer-forþ —		until
geo, in				
geond	30nd	be-3ende, bi-3onde, bi-3unde	bi3onde bi3onden	beyond 5
hér hider,	3eondward her, here hider	yondward her, here hider, huder	her, here hider	here hither
hidres —	hiderward	_	-	hither <b>ws</b>

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	Fourth Per.	
hinan, heonane, heonane, heonane,	heonne	henne, hennes	hennen, hennes, henne, hen hennus, hennis, hens	•
	{he∮en he∮en-ward	heþen	heþen	hence henceforth, hencefor- ward
_"	heonneuorð, hennoforð	fra heþen	fro hennes	from hence henceforth
hindan, hinder, hindweard	 1	hindward	hindeward	hindward
behindan	bihinden	byhynde	behinde	behind
hwæt (what)	mesthwet (almost), alse wat se (as soon as)	alhuet (until), ney-wat (nearly)		
	monihwat			many-what
hwar, hwær	hwer, wær, whær, whære	where, were	wher, wore	where
	ŕ	elles wer		elsewhere
	ichwer			eachwhere
hwæder, hwider, hwyder	hwuder	wyder, whider	whider, where	whither
	whiderward elleswhider, elles hwar other hwar	whiderward		whitherward elsewhere
hwanan, hwana, æghwo-	wonene, hwenene, wheben	wanne, wheðen	whennes, whens, from whennes	when, from whence
	wheþenward e35whær, aihware, owhar, uwher, ihwer	ouwhar	owwhar,	whence-ward anywhere, everywhere
		nour, nowhar		nowhere E E

First Per.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER	
seld-hwonne	seldhwonne, selden, selde, seldum	selden, selde	selde	seldom
in	in	in, yn	in	in
innan	inne	inne, ine	ine	in
binnan	binnen, binne,		~	within
Dillian	bine, an-inne			.,
	inwardes			inward,
	mwardes			within
wiðinnan	iXinnon	wibinnen,	wibinne,	within
wioinnan	wiðinnen,		inwib	WICHILL
	wiðinne,	wibinne,	mwip	
	inwið	inwiþ		with '
mid	mid, mide	mid	! > -1	
midealle	midalle	midalle,	wiþal	withal,
		wiþalli		altogether,
				wholly
niðor, niðer	neoðer, niðer	neðer	neðer	neither
niðan	neðan			from beneath
be-nyðan	binoðen,	heneþe,	bineþen,	beneath
•	binezen,	bineþen,	bine þe,	
	bineaðen,	bineþe	beneþe	
	bineoðe	-	-	
nco8eward	neober-ward,			nether-ward
	nebewarde			
nú	nu ,	now, nou	now	now
on	on	on	on	on
of	of	of	of	of
swá	swa, swo, so, se	swa. sa. so.	so, se	SO
<b>.</b>	0.114, 0.116, 116, 116	se	,	
eal-swá	alswa, alswo,	alswa, also,	also, als, as	as
cu. on a	also, alse, als		uibo, uib, ub	
	anso, ande, and	ase, als		
swylce (as if)	cwilce			
tó	to, te	to	to	to
~,	forto, forte	_		for to
	(before infin.)			101 10
	ever-te (ever-to,			
	ever as yet)	<del></del>		
	never-te			
	(never as yet),			' 2
	never-to	411 1	41 and 1 Con	4
h.d	han ban ban	til and fra	til and fro	to and
þær	per, par, por	þer, þere,	pere, pare,	there
		þer, þore	þer, þar,	<b>1</b>
			pore	
þæder, þider		bider, buder	þider	thithe
biderward	þiderward	þiderward	þiderward	thitheir
biderweardes		•		thither

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	Fourth Per.	•
þanon, þonon	ponene,	þanne,	þennes	thence
panne, ponne	panne, penne		e þennes, þenne, þan þen	then
bá	þa, þo	þa, þo	bo	than
	þeþen,	þeþen	þeþen, þien	thence
	pepenford	· <u>-</u>		thenceforth
núðá	nuþe, nuþen	nouþe	nouþe	now, now then
þæs (so, very)	hes			then
tó þam, tó þon	<i>yea</i>	-		
(so, very)				
bus	bus	bus, bous	bus	thus
þurh	burh, burch		þorgh	through
	bureh	burf	burgh, borow	
	thurh-ut	,		thoroughout
under	under	under	under, undre	
			from undre	
úр	up	up	up	up
	upwardes			upward
	upward			upward
ufan				above
ufanan	ovenan			above
	buven, buve	buve	buve	above
	abufen, bibufen		above,	above
		above,	aboven	
		abuve		
wið-ufan				above
on-ufan				above
ulan-ward		ovenward		above
	uvewar			upward
eal maest		almest	almost	almost
ofer	over	over	over	over
	ut, ute, uten	out	out	out
	utwardes			outward
(bútan :	abeoten, abu-	abouten,	abouten,	about
	ten, abute	aboute	abouté	
ymb-útan				
útan-vmb				
útan-ymb b				
	wið-uten,	wibouten,	wibouten,	without
•	uten-wið,	wiboute,	wibout,	
	ute-wið	outwith	outwith	
,	við	wiþ		against
		<u>.                                    </u>	wiþer	
			(opposite)	
7	wiþ and wiþ			

E E 2

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER. '	Third Per. 1	Fourth Per.	
þær-ábútan	þær-abuten, þer-abuten	per-aboute	`\	thereabout
	bær-binnen		}	therewithin
	þær-bi, þor-bi	þerbi	1	thereby
þær-æfter	þer (þar),	þer-after	1	thereafter
	-æfter, þar-		1	
	after		-	41
	m	ber ney,		there nigh
		þer neih	. 1	thereafter
		ber afterward ber biside	1	there beside
þ.ér-inne	por-inne,	ber-inne	1	therein
pær-mne	ber-inne,	per-mile		····c·c···
	ber-aninne,			
	þer-an, þrin			
þær-mid	ber-mide,	bermid		therevith
pier inite	þar-mid			
þær-of	per-of, per-offe,	þer-of	7-1	thereof
•	þor-offen		,ĕ	_
þær-on	þron, þær-on,	þer-on	) b	thereon
	þar-on, þron			
þær-tó	per-to, por-til	perto, per-til	/ :	thereto
þær-tógéanes	per-azen,	þer-teyenes	( 🛱	thereagainst
	bar-to-seines,			
1	þar-to-yeynes		As in Third Period.	thereabove
þær ufan	þer∙oven, ber-ufenan		¥ ¥	thereupo re
	ber-ofer	berover		thereover
	ber-upon	berupon	1	thereupon
	bar-vore,	ber-fore,		therefore
	þer (þær) fore	þer-vore		
þær-úte	por-uten,	ber-out,		thereout
par-ucc	ber-ute,	bar-oute	i	
`	bar-ute	,	1	
	bor-buten		l l	therewithout
	þer-þurh,	þer-þrogh		therethrough
	þar-þurh			
þær-wið	þær-wið	þer-wiþ	1	therewith
	þor-wið		į	41
	þar-wyþ-al	þer-wiþal		therewithal thereunder
	por-under	-		thereunder
	þer-under þor-fra, þer-fra,	ther fro	1	theref
	ber-from	ber-fram	1	
	-	•	/ 4h amanan	there u
	ber-uppe,	therupon	therupon	there-u
	þruppe ber et	therat		therea
	þer-at	inciat	<del></del>	

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
	þer-anunder, þor-under	-		thereunder
_	per-imong, per-among, por-mong	þeramong	-	there among
		þar-into	-	thereinto
		ber-to-fore		theretofore
	þer-toward			toward that
ér-æfter	her-efter, her-bi	her-after	herafter	hereafter
	her-mid	her-mid, her-wip		herewith
	her-of, -offe	her-of	herof	hereof
	her-on	her-on	heron	hereon
	her-fore	her-for, her-fore	herfore	herefore
	her-to			hereto
	her-ut	her-out		hereout
	her-wiðinnen	her-inne	herin	herein
	her-þurh			here-through
-	whar-ine, war-ine	huer-ynne	wherin	wherein
	quor-at			whereat
	whæron	huer-an, huer-on		whereon
•		huer-of, whar-of	wherof	whereof
_	hwer-wið	huer-mide, hwarwib	wherwith	wherewith
and the same of th	hwar-to, hwer-to			whereto
-	hwar-fore	*****	wherfore	wherefore
Manage .	hwar-þuruh			wherethrough
*****		huer-by		whereby
		huer-onder		whereunder
		huer-oppe		whereupon
wí ne	hwi ne	quin, quine, , whine		O that

### PREPOSITIONS.

# I. Prepositions Proper.

First Per	. Second Per.	THIRD PER	. Fourth Pe	R.
æfter, æft	æfter, æftere, after, efter	after	aftre, after	after
	efterward			
bæftan, be-æftan	bæftan, biaften, baften, biefter		baft	behind, after
wið-æftan		-		behind
and				with, in
æt	æt, at, et	at	at	at
bi, be	bi, by, be	bi, by, be		by
for, fore	fore, for, vor	for, vor, fore		for
foran	foren, for-bi		forbi	before
æt-foran	at-, et-foren,	atvore		before
bi-foran,	biforen	byforen,	bifore,	before
be-foran		bifore,	before,	
De loiuli		bivore	beforn,	
		5	beforen	
on-foran	aforen		afore	afore
to-foran	tofore, toforen	tofore, tovore		before
wið-foran				before
forth (adv.)	forbe (prep.		without-forth	forth = forth
()	= beyond)		(= outside	
!	= bejona,		of)	Shakspeare)
			even-forth,	
			em-forth,	
			ferforth	tent of
fram	from, vrom	from		from
frommard				fromward
	fro, fra	fro, fra	fro, fra	from
giond, geond	geond, zeond,			through, after
B.01.0, B.01.1	gond	300		
(fram)geon-	B			from beyond
dan		•		
be-geond,	bizende,	bizonde,	bezonde,	over, by
be-geon-	bizonden	hi zende	bizondis	beyon
dan				1,17
wið-geondan	an rea		-	beyond
be-heonan		****		this side
	bihinden	behynde	behynde	behind
		inne, ine		in I
innan	inne, innan			in, withi
	,			,

First Per.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	Fourth Per	
b-innan	binnen, bine, binne	bin		within
wið-innan	wiþinnen, wiþinne, in-wiþ	wyþinne	withinne, within, in with	within
	inne midde- ward	amidward		amid
mid	mid on-midden	mid amiddes, imyd, imyddes	mid	with . in the middle of
neoðan be-neoðan	bineope, binepen, binopen	bineþe, beneþe	beneþe	beneath beneath
under-neoðan		underneabe	underneþe	underneath
of	of	of	of	from, off
on	on, o, an, a	on, an, a	on, an, a	on, in
on innon				within, into
inne on	an inne			within, into
up + on	up on, an uppe	upon	upon, in upon	upon 1
óð, óð in	a pet = od pæt	o þat	-	until, unto
tó	to	to, alto (unto)	) to	to, for
til (Northum- brian)	til	til	til	to
		unto	unto	unto
	forte (forto)	forte, vort, fort	-	until
into	into	into	into	into
	intil	intil, until	intil, until	into, until
b-ufan	buuen, boue, bufen, buue		bune	above
_	a-bufen (	above, aboven, oboune, oboven	above, aboven	above, over
on-ufan	oven an, uvenen,		_	from above upon, over
•	ovenon 	an-oue-ward, an-ou-ward		at the top of
	ofer, over	on over	over	over, above

i (prep.) = up (adv.) + on (prep.), not O.E. uppan, uppen, uppe.

FIRST PER. SECOND PER. THIRD PER. FOURTH PER.

_			at-over, at- above	beyond, above
úρ (adv.).	up	up, op,	up	up
úppan	uppan, uppen		upe, up	
• •	upen, uppe,	op, ope	• • •	, ,
	uppo, uppon			,
on-úppan	an uppe, on-			upon
••	uppe, an-			•
	uppon			
under	under	under	under	under
	anunder		anunder	under
útan	ute	out, out-of	out	out of, from
				out
bútan (=be-	buten, bute 1	bute, bote,	bute, but, bo	ot but, out of,
útan)		bot, but		without,
				exc~pt
on-bútan	abutan	abute, aboute		about,
á-bútan	abuten	oboute	aboute	around
wið-útan	wiðuten,	withouten	withouten,	without
	wið-ute,	withoute,	withoute,	
	utwiþ,	outwith	outwith	
	utewiþ,			
	wiþutan			
ymb-útan				about, round
útan-ymbe				about
	-	ute over		
		(above)	., .	. 1
*.34	burh ut	thorgh out	tnurzout	throughout
wið	with 2	with	with	with forthwith
130	forð-wið	forþ-wiþ		iorthwith
wider(against)				
	umben, embc,		umbe (about)	around, about
embe, emb	umbe	umbe-mong	um-only as prefix to	•
		(about,		
haab	huub huuah	round about		through
þurh		burh, boru,		through
	þureh	þur3, þurf		
			thorgh, thorow	
		horn out	MOIOW	throughout
		poru-out		rmongnout

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Middle E. bute = without, except.
<sup>2</sup> In the Second period with often signifies from, by, and has all sense of our with. In the Third and Fourth periods it takes altethe place of the older *mid*. In the First period *wiv* = with, op against, from, beside, along, &c.

## II. Compound Prepositions.

#### (a) SUBSTANTIVE.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PE	R.
éac (in addi- tion to)	ek, ec (adv.)	ek, eke (adv.)	) cke, ek (adv.	) eke
to-éacan	to-eke (adv.), teke (adv.), tekan (adv.)	þerteke (adv.	)	thereto
on-gegn on-gén, on-géan, á-géan, á-gén	on-sein, on-seen, on-seenes, sæn, ansen, asen, osen, aseines, asenes, yeynes	gayn, a5en, a5ein, a5eyn, a5ain, a5aine, ogain, a5aines, ayen, ayans, aye	azen, azien, azens, azeines, ayens, azeinst, ayenst	against, towards (opposite)
		avoreye, avorye, (against, towards)	_	over against
tó-gegnes, to-génes, to-géanes,	to-zene, to-zenes, to-zeines, to-zeine, to-yeynes,	toyenes, to3ens	to-azens	against
ge-mang, on-gemang on-mang, á-mang,	imæng, imong,	omang, amanges, imang, umbe-	among, amonges, immonzes,	among, amongst
be-norðan		mong bynorth	by north	north of
be-éastan	bi esten	by este	by este	east of
be-westan	biwesten	by weste	by weste	west of
be-súðan		by soupe 1		south of
_	bi-side, bisiden, bisides	bysyde, bysides	byside bysides	beside, besides
be-healfe	bihalf, bihælves bihalves	, '		besides (on this side of), on be- half of
	. —	instude of	instede of	instead of

the provincial dialects we find besouth, be twest, &c. In the period these forms are also used adverbially.

First Per	. SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER	•
á-dún —	adun, dun þurh dynt (with gen.)	doun thorgh dynt of, with dynt of	do <b>un</b> 	down, adown by dint of
		be wey of		by way of
on-lyfte (adv.)	o-lofte (adv.)		alofte	aloft (Shak- speare)
	tere.	toppe (above	)	
	(	b) Adjective	•	
<b></b> ér	ar, er	er, ar, or	er, ere, or	
feor				far from
unfeor				not far from
gehende		hende (adv.)	hende, ende	
(cp. O.Sa)	ζ.			near to
at-handun	n,			ě
at hand) néah	neh	2011	nna nuah	nigh nigh to
néan néar	iieii	ney	ny3, nygh ner, nerre	nigh, nigh to nearer, nearer
ileai			ner, nerre	to, near,
				near to
néhst	næxt,	next, nest	next (=next	next, next to
	•	,	to)	•
néah-hand		neihand	ner hond	near
(nearly)				
néawiste	aneoweste,			by, near
	ancouste			
tó-weard	toward,	toward	toward	toward
. ,	touward			
tó-weardes	, ,		towardes	towards <sup>1</sup>
	adune-ward			down after
from mond	after-ward	framerand	fromward	_
from-ward	frommard,	framward	iromward	from
	fromword, fraward			
	nawaiu	upward		(upwards of)
wana	wane, on wane,			minus
wana	awane			IIIIIus
and-lang,	on-longen,	endelong .	along	along
ond-long,	an-long,	end-lang	ende-long	1
,b)	inlanges		endelonges	
ge-long, pre-		along (on)	along (on)	all 'long
ceded by	preceded by	<b>3</b>	. ,	along
prep. on	on			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>. In the Second period we find towardes (adv.) = about to future; Shakspeare uses toward in the same sense.

First Per.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	Fourth Per.	
on middan	on midden, imiddes		V-10000	amid
on-middum	amidden, amidde, amideward	amydde, amid, mydde, amidward	amyddis, amyddes, amiddes	amid, amidst
tó-middes	magar Africa	in be middes	in be middis of	in the midst
on-middele			in be mydil of, in be myddylle o	in the middle of, by the f middle of
		anness.	amel, ymel, omell, amel	amid
be-twih, be-tweoh, betwuh, betuh (betuihs, betweohs), betweox, betwux,	bitwihan, bituhhen, bitwixan, bitwixe, bitwixen, bitwixte, bitwixte,	betuex, bitwix	bitwixe, betwixen, betwixt, bytwyste	betwixt
				a-twixt (Spenser)
be-twéonum, be-twýnum		bytwene	betwen, bytwene	between
efene, efne (adv.), nefne, nemne (except), tó-emnes, tó-efnes (along, evenly)		emne, efne, an emn, &c. (adv.)		even, evenly
on-efn, on-emn	on efn (adv. in La3.), anundes, anont, onont, on-onde, onefent	onence, anente, anende3	anent, anens, anentis, anemptis, anentist, aneynst, anende	<sup>2</sup> anent

N. å mevel, a milli; Dan. imellem; Swe. emillem.

non to = even to (anent in the Third period); cp.

'Alle (h)is clopes caste of everichon

Anon to is scerte."—I.egends of Holy Rood, pp. 54, 55.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
		and the same of th	em forþ	according
			evenefor) <sup>1</sup> (adv.)	according to
on-fæst	onfest, onfast, anfest, faste bi		faste by	fast by
	subbhe, sibbe	subbe, sibe	sibe, sin, sen	since
dwyrs, dwirhes, dweorh, dwer, on pweorh (adv.)	pwer-t-ut (O.N. pvert)	·	, <u>-</u>	athwart, thwart
	Norman	overþwert	over þwart	athwart, thy art
•	<b>þ</b> wertove <b>r</b>			athwart
P .	onward			instead of
*****	inward		*******	within

## CONJUNCTIONS.

### I. Pronominal.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER	١.
and, ond	and	and	and	and
nú	nu	now, now	now	now
nene	nene	nene	nene	neithernor
éac, é <b>c</b>	ck, cke, ok	ek, eke	eke, eche	also, eke
ac, ach, ah	ah, auh, ec, ach, ok	ac	ac	but
swá	swa, so, sua, swo	sa, swa, sa, so	so	so
eal-swá	alswa, alswo, also, alse, ase	also, alswa, alse, ase	as, also	also, as
	sum	som, sum	som, sum	as
swá hwár-swá	whær-swa	wher-as	wheras	whereas
swylce	swulc, alse,			as if
oif	3if, gif, yef	zif. vif	3if, if	if .
gif ðý	bi	3if, yif bi	J, 11	therefore
áðý (ðe)	r·	r- 		so muchas

<sup>1</sup> Evenforh became evene aboute in later writers; used as an

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER. I	FOURTH PER.	
			lest	lest
ðýlæs ðe ðelæste ðe	,			
ðás	·			so far, thus
væsðe				whereby therefore
	þes		banne, ban	then
von, vonne	þænne, þanne þenne,	panne, pan penne, ponne	panne, pan	
<b>Tonne</b>	ponne pene, panne,	benne, banne	, þan, þen	than, since
	þonne, þan	þan	als, bot	than
	þa, þo	bo, þa	þa, þa	then
ðá 84 1.4	ba, bo	bo	po, po pat	when that
ðá þá ðéah	þæh, þah,	þez, þei, þof	bouz, bogh,	nevertheless,
oean	þoh, þeh,		þeigh, þei	though
	baih, bauh,			
	þeih, þeyh			-1th anah
-			alle boughe	although nevertheless
swáðéah	þoh-swa-þoh			(though)
				thence
danon		l.o.u	ber, beras	there, where
vær, vær vær	ber, bær bær	þer þerfore	berfore	therefore
	per-fore, bær-fore	periore	1	
N	bende			whilst
denden for de	forði	for thy	for thy	therefore
for ðý	10101	,	·	(for thy is used by Spenser)
₹æt	pat, pet	þet, þat, at	pat, at	that, in order that, on purpose that
		ar, or, er	ar, er, or	ere, or (ever)
ær (ðæt)	ær, er, ar,		erthen	ere that
ær dam dæt ær dam de	ær þan, er þan	Ci puii	erst then, or that	
_	after þat	after that	after that	after during, whilst
-	biforen þat	bifore pat	before bat	before, afore while that
bitten (bæt),	imong þat bute, buten	bute, bote,	but, bot	but,
an	Dute, Dute.	bute þat		but that
		-	no but,	only
			no bot	butif
	but 3if	but-3if, but-gif	but 3if	(unless)

First Per.	. SECOND PER.		FOURTH PER	
h/ Mam ha		bi þat	bi þat	until, by that by this that, as
bi vam þe for van væt, for von ve for vam ve for van ve	, for þi þat,	for þat, for	for because that, for thi that	because that,
	for	for	for al	for, because for all (not- withstand- ing)
				for and (and moreover)
	fra þat	from þat, fram þat	100.400	since, from that (time)
mid dam de,	iþat þat	,		in that with that
mid <b>vý ve</b> nefne,				when, while unless
nemne, nymỡc óð ðæt	a þet,	al huet.		until
00 0100	forto, forte, vorte, fort, bat, wat	fort, forte		
of on (=syoan, since)	of þat (when that)			
siððan (= siððam ðæt)	on3æn þat seodden	seppe, sen	siþen, siþ, siþens, sins sin þat	against since, sith , that (Spenser), sithens (Ib.), sithence, since that (Shaksp.)
	til þat forte þat)	frapat tille, til, to forto, forte	fropat til, unto, to	since till, until
	ford pat, }			until, till that
wið don þe	forte J wið þon þe, wiþ þan-þe	wiþ þe þat wiþ þat	with that	provided
$\begin{cases} t\acute{o} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \$		may yat		totheen

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER	. Fourth Pi	cr.
		20 T	wiþouten	unless that, except, without
· Corp	þurh þat, þurh þat þat		bur5 pat pur5 pat pat ther thur5 pat(becaus that)	through that , e
				besides that,
				notwithstand- ing that
•	. ~		by be cause pat, becaus pat	
			for because bat	for because (vulgar)
			no but, no but 3if, but	except that, except, ex- cepting that
Ministration and	Married Annual Control of the Contro	save	save that, saf	only that
		on lesse		saving, unless
samsam,				whetheror
ge				and
-	gege	,		bothand
geand	ga þaga þa	, 1996a	ye bob, ya bobeand	bothand
ge	3e	3e	3e (3he)	even, yea, nay, nay even, ay
git, get	zet, zette	3et	3et	yet
	hwethwet		whatwhat, t whatand what, what and	whatand
hwonne	wenne, whan, whanne, wane (ponne panne)	huen	whan, when, when that	when so, when as, whensoever
hwár, huer, swá huer	hwar	wher, huer, whar	wher, whar	
•	ware so, hwære-swa, war-swa, wer-swa, whær-swa-se, whær-sæm			whereso

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
		war-b <b>y</b>	whereby that wherefore that	, whereby, wherefore
		wher-with 1		where-with
	-	war-boru	-	where-
		•		through
	whuder	whider	whider	whither
swá-hwider.	wuder-swa	whider-ever		whithersoever
swá				
	woder þat			whither that
hwæðerbe	wheberober,		whetheror,	whether or,
	whetherbe			r whether,
			,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	or whether
hwæðer	***			whether or
oððe,				
იშშeიშშ	e			
	he		wood.	or
swá-ðéah-		bogh-queber	the quether	nevertheless,
hwæðere		thogh-	•	yet
		whether		,
ægðer…ge,	e38er3e,		eitherand	bothand
άgðores				
ge	e3berand,			
8-	booeand			
			eyberor,	eitheror,
			eberor	either, or
			.,	else
చరంr (చరer)	oðeroðer	oberor	oþeror	eitheror
oŏŏe			,	
_		Norm 1	eþeror	eitheror
		Martin Ma	eyþeror,	eitheror
			oroubher	
		-	oror	oror
	ober	oper, or	oper, or	or
náðor ne	neoðerne,	noberne,	neiberne,	neithernor
naoornc	neoterna,	nouperne		
	nowberne	nouper	neyberne	7
		*****	nouperne,	neither
			neþer	neither,
			neþer,	nornor.
	4,	7 b-	neiþer	,
			neiber	
			ye.	

<sup>1</sup> See Adverbs.

## II. Numeral.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
ánsum, sumsum	sumsum	somsom, somand som	oþeroþer	other
bégen 1and	baðeand, baand	bobeand	botheand	bothand
árest síððahæt néxtan 	erstsiþþen,	firstsiþþen (siþþe) —	firstand sibben  firstafter, ,,eft, ,,after-ward, ,,after pat, ,,ferther-more, ,,also, ,,thanne, ,,than, ,,finally	• •

# III. Adjective (Adverbial).

on efne cornostlíce	an æfne	evene	therfore	even, even to
	********			
for <b>oon</b>			therefore	therefore
sóðlíce			forsobe lo!	truly
			sooply,	
			sobly	
witodlíce			indeed,	truly
400	,		forsobe	
elles 👊	and ælles		and elles.	else, or else
100	, and tones		elles, or	•
***			elles	
••			CHES	like as, like-
gelice,	iliche (alike)	(an-liche)		
gelíce-swá		₩	A	wise,
on-lice		_		alikeand
			furthermore	furthermore
S. mar.			furtherover	further
•			moreover	moreover
		00		where that
		as	Con famb	as far as
		as ver lorp	as as fer forb	as iai as

<sup>1</sup> It was inflected.

#### IV. Substantive.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
hwilum	while (wile)		whilomand	
hwílum	while (wile)		whilom	awhile,
				some- times
				sometimes,
				at times
				at times
			nownow	nownow
	beonnebennc			nownow
ðá hwíle	beo while be			the while that
ðá hwíle	ba while bat	the while ba	ıt	the while that
****	be while be,	the while,		while, whilst,
	whil bat,		es the while,	the while
	hwils		le whils, while	
	114113	pat, to whi		wl.iles).
		pat, to win	IIS	
				while that,
				whilst that,
				during the
				while that
		for be case ba	t in case if	in case, in case
				that
on væt geråd				on condition
8				that

## V. Prepositional.

See &r, &fter, biforan, bútan, bí, for, from, in, mid, nemne. óð, of, ongéan, síð, til, tó, wið, wiðútan, ðuruh, &c. These forms are generally followed by ðæt, de (that).

## VI. Verbal.

to iwiten — to wit

## VII. Compounds.

nálæs ðæt án	*	nost oneac	nost oneac not onlynot only			
…ac éac		¥	not only	.but, but,		
			but eke,	not merely		
			not only	but		
			not only but and	•		
ná <b>ð</b> ýlæs,	noþelæs,	nobeles,	neverbeles,	nathles		

<sup>1</sup> Ne for thi, nat for thi occur in the Third and Fourth peri nevertheless.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER. 1	FOURTH PER.	
ná ðe læs	no þe later, neuer þe later	neverþeles, never þe later, ner þe later	naþeles, never þe	neverthe- less
ac ná <b>čé</b> má		najemo		nathemore (neverthe- less),
væt is	pat is, pet is	þat is	þat is	that is
		that is at say	that is to	that is to say
		,	seye, that is to seie	,,
nære (ne wære) væt		warne, warn	warne, warn na war	were it not that
			alle be it that,	were it so, be it so,
				albe, albeit
•	W-11766		though so be	how be
,			that, sith	
			that, so is	
			that	

## INTERJECTIONS.

éa	a	a		a A	! A ! A	ah!	
					ickliffe		
				Jer	, xiv. 13	3)	
		 aŀ	na	aha	-	( aha	
éa-lá <sup>1</sup>		 al	as, allas	alas,		O, alas,	_
				alla		alas the c	lay
				fy all	as	alack,	
						lackaday	
						bah(O.F.ba	
				ey		eh (O.F. e	u),
					с.	ay	G١
		 1 9	adebles	vath		fie (O.F. f	")
			(= fie a devils)		thee, (vath)		
			deviisj		u, fy		
		,		vah (		foh, fah,	
				V.(11 (	· acii,	faugh	
hio	_			-		heigh, hey	
	•					heyday	•

Eá-lá seems to be mixed up with F. hi-las (Lat. lassus, weary), hence alas!

FIRST PER. SECOND PER. THIRD PER. FOURTH PER.

aweih

heil (be bou)

ay me!

hail! al hail!

harrow!

whisht!

bow-wow

gee

whoa

hú		No. and		how
hú lá		en		how now
hwý		The same	why	why
lá	la, lo, lour	lo	lo, loo	lo l'la! O la!
	0	O	ow, ou	O, oh
			a	O, O me!
			te he¹	aha!
	Marine Are		weu	aha!
				ugh!
hwæt		what	what	what!
wá	wa, wo	wo	woo, wo	woe!
wá-lá	wola, wallan, wela, weolla, wele	•		alas! ·
		Particular	alas	alas!
wá lá wá	ah wala wa, walawa, wolawo, wæila, wæi, weilawei	wezlaway, weilaway	wa la wa	ah, vell-a- day, well away
	awæi, awei,	awei, awey,		alas! O woe!

wei

harow

whist

baw, bawe

avoy (O.Fr. fie avoi)

heit now

jossa

In the Second period we find witicrist, wot Crist = Christ knows, by Christ!

In the Third period we find (1) deus, douce = the deuce; (2) dapeit, dahet (O.Fr. deshait, dehait, dehet) = ill betide. In subsequent writers it became dapet, which has given ris to dase you! dise you! dash you! (3) goddot, goddoth = Gog wot, God knows. It occurs also in the subsequent periq

Denotes mocking laughter.

Peter = St. Peter, is a common interjection in the Third and Fourth periods, like Marry.' ( = the Virgin Mary) in later times.

Bi Crist, for God, Lorde, &c. occur in the Third and Fourth periods.

Seinte Marie! occurs as interjection in the Second period.

#### APPENDIX III.

# WORDS OF NORMAN-FRENCH ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BEFORE 1300.

I. In the "Saxon Chronicle," before 1200:-

Cuntesse, curt, dub, dubban, dubben, emperice, justise, miracles, pais, prisun, privileges, processiun, rente, standard, tresor, tur.

II. "Lambeth Homilies" ("O.E. Hom.," First Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, before 1200:—

Asottie, blanchet, cachepol, castel, cherité, clerk, crunede, elmesful, elmesse, erites (=heretics), ermine, ewangeliste, flum, fructe, ioffred, iugulere, large, lechurs, liureisun, manere, meister, merci, messe, munek, munte, palefrai, parais, passiun, poverte, processiun, prophete, prude, prut, riche, rubbere, sabeline, sacremens, salm, saltere, sauter, seinte, sermonen, servise, sottes, spus, spus had, ureisuns.

III. "Trinity College Homilies" ("O.E. Hom.," Second Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, before 1200:—

Aisie, albe, almes, archebissopes, barun, bispused, burnet, calch, calice, caliz, candel, chastren, chemise, clerc, confessors, corporeals, crisme-cloth, custume, fustane, gestninge, languste (locust), lechure, maisterlinges, marbreston, martirs, meister, mentel, messe, mesure, minster, miseise, munt, olive, onur, oregel, orgele, palm, patriarche, penance, penitence, poure, prisune, prophete, religiun, richeise, roberie, saffran, salm, sepulcre, sergantes, sol, sole, spuse, strect, tur, turnde, turtle, underplantede, underplanter, virgines.

IV. Words from Lazamon's "Brut," ed. M

Achaped, admirail, apostolic, archen, armite, ascaped, astronavallen, balles, barun, biclusen, bolle, bunnen, cacchen, caucantelcope, cathel (chattels), cheisil, clusden (closed), coriun (musica

pipe), crune, cruneden, crucche, dotie, dubben, duc, dus5e pers, eastresse, falsie, flum, ginne, hardiliche, hiue (hue and cry), hurte, iburned, ieled (anointed), ire, kablen, lac, latimer, lavede, legiun, licoriz, liun, machunes, mahun, male, mantel, martir, messagere, mile, montaine, munstre, munt, must, nunne, olifantes, pal, paradis, peytisce (=of Poitou), pilegrim, pore, porz (ports), postes, pouere, processiun, putte, riche, riches (=richesse), salmes, salteriun, scærninge, scare, scarn, sceremigge (scrimmage), scole, scornes, scurmen, seælled, senaht, senaturs, seint, servinge, servise, sire, sot, sumunde, talie (?), temple, timpe, tumbel, tunne, tur, turne, warde, weorre (war), werre (to war, rayage), ymages.

In the later text we find the additional words—abbey, anued, aspide (espied), atyr, canoun, changede, chapel, chevetaine, cloke, conseil, contre (country), cope, cri, delaic, cyr, failede, fol, folie, gile, gisarme, grace, granti, guyse, harsun (arçun), heremite, honure, hostage, istored, manere, marbre-stone, nonnerie, note, paide, pais, paisi, parc, passi, pensiles, porses, prisune, rollede, route, sarvi, scapie, seine (ensign), siwi (follow), soffri, tavel, tresur, truage, tumbe, urinal, usi, waiteth.

V. (1) "Seinte Marharrete," ed. Cockayne, for E.E.T. Society, about 1200:—

Bascin, castel, changede, chapele, chevese, crauant, crune, crunede, grace, grandame, ibreuet, lampe, liun, mantles, martir, martirdom, merci, passiun, prince, prisun, salve, samblant, seinte, turnen, warant.

(2) "On Ureisun," &c. in Lambeth MS. and Cotton MS. Nero, A. xiv. ("O.E. Hom.," First Series), about 1220:—

Abandun, cunfort, delit, fals, medicine, privité, salvi, unsauuet.

(3) "On God Ureisun," Cotton MS. Nero, A. xiv. ("O.E. Hom." First Series):—

Cherité, ciclatune, ikruned, krune, munuch, paradise, servise.

(4) "On Lofsong of ure Lefdi" (Ib.):-

Buffettunge, crununge, grace, passiun, pris, prude, sacreo, sacre-ment.

(5) "On Lofsong of ure Lourde" (Ib.): -

Ewangeliste, i-sacred, merci, mérciable, obedience, of-seruunge, sawte., seruunge, turnen, warant, un-of-serued.

#### (6) "Soules Warde" (O.E. Hom.):--

Aturnet, castel, cruneð, cunestable, cunfessurs, i-cheret, i-robbet, keiseres, mealles, meistre, meistreð, meoster, meosure, mesure, preouin, semblant, tresor, trones.

#### (7) "IVohunge of ure Louerd" (Ib.):-

Beast, busset, calenges, carpe, chaumbre, crune, debonairté, deboneirschipe, derennedes, dol, druð, druri, sise, gentile (gentiller, gentileste), grace, hardi, large, largesse, lettres, mesaise, munt, noble, noblesce, paie, passiun, piler, pouerte, poure, praie, prei, prince, prisun, ribauz, robbedes, schurges, spuse, strete, treitur, tresun.

## (8) "Hali Meidenhad," ed. Cockayne:-

Acovered, acoveringe, adamantine stan, angoise, asail3et, aturn, basine, beast, cangun, chaste, chaisteð, chaunger, confort, coveringe, crunen, cuncweari, cuntasse, degrez, delit, digneté, eise, estat, flurs, gentil, gerlaunde, grace, grene, haunteð, heritage, huler, i-robbed, laumpe, leccherie, meistre, nurice, paraise, preoueð, prisun, prokie, prophete, puisun, richesce, sauuure, semblaund, serven, servize, suleð, treitre, tresor, trubuil, turnunge, uerte, uncoverlich, vanité, weimeres.

### (9) "Ancren Riwle," ed. Morton, for Camden Society :-

Abit, absoluciun, abstinence, accidie, achate, acwiten, adote, advent, adversité, afeited, affectiun, akointed, akoveren, aloes, amased, ameistre, ampiules, ancheisun, ancre (anchor), andetted, angoise, anguisuse, anniversaries, antefne, anui, arche, armes, aromaz, articles, asailen, asaumple, aspereté, aspieden, assauz, assumeiun, astaz, atiffen, attente, aturn, auaunceb, auenture, auez, augrim, autorité, awaitie, baban, bame, baptiste, barain, baret, baundune, beaubelet, belami, bi-barred, bi-clusinge, bi-mased, bi-saumpleð, bi-trufleð, blamen, blasphemie, broche, buffeten, burgeises, cancre, canoniel, capitalen, castel, cause, celere, celles, champiun, charoines, chaste, chasteté, chastiement, chaumberling, chaumbre, chaunge, chaungen, chaungunge, cheapitres, chere, cherité, chetel, circumstances, cité, clauses, clergesse, clerk, cloudegelofre, cluse, cogitaciun, collecte, contemplaciun, continuance, cope, corbin, counsail, creaunt, crede, creoisen, creoiz, crucifix, crune, crununge, cul, cumfort, cumplie, cuntinuelement, cwaer, cwarreaus, cwitaunce, cwite, cwiver, cwointe, dame, dangerus, debonere, debonerté, defautes, deinté, delices, deliten, departunge, depeinten, descriued, deskumfit, despoiled, destruied, dette, detturs, deuociun, devot, dewleset, dialoge, diete, dignité, disciplines, d' tinctiuns, disturben, driwerie, duble, eaise, efficaces, enbreued, entente entermeten, eremite, eresie, eritage, failede, familfarité, fantesny feble, feblesce, feblie, fefre, feste, festre, figer, figes, fisicient flatterunge, flures, fol, folherdi, frut, garcen, gelus, gelu genterise, gentile, gibet, gigge, gile, gilen, gingiu(e)re, giwe glorie, glutun, glutunie, grace, gredil, greuen, grusche, gun-

faneur, harlot, haunche, hurlunge, i-ancred, i-flured, ignorance, i-granted, i-kupled, i-laced, impacience, incest, inobedience, i-paied, ipocrisie, ipocrite, i-sturbed, iuglur, joie, juggement, juggen, jurneie, kalenge, keccheo, kerneaus, kernel, kunfort, kunscence, kunsiler, kurt, kurteisie, kuuertur, largeliche, larger, largesce, lecherie, lechur, leprus, lescuns, letanie, lettre, letuarie, leun, licur, manere, manciple, maseliche, maten, medicine, meditaciuns, meister, meistrie, menestraus, mercer, merci, merit, meseise, messager, messeo, mesteres, mesterie, mesure, miracle, mirre, misericorde, mis-ipaied, muchares, munt, munuch, nativité, neppe, noble, noblesce, noces, noise, nurice, obedience, obedient, observaunce, ordre, orhel, pacience, pagine, paien, palm, parais, parlures, paroschian, parten, passen, passiun, peintunge, peinture, peis, pellican, penitence, perfectiun, person, pilche, pilegrimes, pilere, piment, pitaunce, pleinte, plenté, pope, point, potage, poure, prechen, prechur, prechures, preeminces, preisen, preisunge, prelat, preofunge, preoue, preouen, present, presente, presse, presumciun, prime, pris, prisun, prisune, priuement, priuilege, priuité, privé, professiun, prokie, prophete, propre, propreliche, prosperité, puffes, purgatorie, purses, rancor, ransun, reclus, recoilen, recorde, regibbed, reison, relef, religiun, religiuse, relikes, remedies, remissiun, renten, rentes, riche, richesses, rikelot, riote, riwle, riwlen, riwlunge, robbares, robben, rose, rute, sabraz, sacrament, sacreo, sacrifise, salme, saluen, saluz, salve, sarmun, sauter, sauuaciun, sauuen, sauur, scandle, scorn, scorpiun, semblaunt, seint, seinte, sentence, sepulcre, seruien, seruise, servant, silence, simonie, simple, sire, skirm, skurgen, sol, sot, sotschipe, speciale, spense, spice, spices, spitel, sponge, spus, stamin, stat, sturbinge, sucurs, suillede, sulement, sutare, temptaciuns, tempti, tendrust, terme, testament, treisun, treitre, tresor, tribulaciuns, tricherie, trinité, trone, trublen, trufles, trusseaus, trussen, truwandise, tur, tures, turnement, turnen, uenie, ungraciuse, unicorn, unsauure, unseaueliche, unstable, untrussed, ureisuns, ures, urnemenz, vaumpez, veiles, vers, versalie, verset, verslunge, vestimenz, vileinie, vilté, waite, wardeins, weorrede, weorreur, ymne, zedewal.

VI. (1) "Bestiary," in "An O.E. Miscellany," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240:—

Capun, cete, cethegrande, crede, dragun, elpe, funt-fat, grace, leun, mandragores, market, panter, poure, robbinge, simple, spuse, turtre, venim.

(2) "Genesis and Exodus," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240:—

Arsmetrike, astronomige, aucter, auter, bigamie, canticle, charité, infumcis, cité, corune, crisme, crune, desert, graunte, gruchede, holosit, hostel, iusted, lecherie, lepre, munt, mester, offiz, pais, plenté, presente, pris, promissioun, prophet, roche, sacrede, serue, service, spices, spirit, suriun, swinacie, ydeles, ydolatrie.

(3) "Old Kentish Sermons," in "An O.E. Miscellany," about 1240:—

Acumbri, amonestement, amunteð, anud, anuri, aparailen, aperen, aresunede, asoiled, auenture, chaste, cité, commandement, commencement, compainie, conseil, contrarie, curs, custome, cuuenable, defenden, deliuri, desevired, diuers, ensample, folies, grante, glorius, glutunie, gruchche, i-sauued, i-warised, lecherie, lechur, lepre, leprus, maladie, marcatte, merci, miracle, montagne, nature, natureliche, of-serven, onuri, orgeilus, paie, pelrimage, peril, perissi, poure, religiun, roberie, sacrefyse, sarmun, seinte, sergaunz, serui, seruise, signefiance, signefien, somoni, spusbreche, suffri, travail, umble, urisun, verray, vertu, visiti, ydres.

## (4) "Owl and Nightingale," ed. Stratmann, 1244:-

Acorde, afoled, barez, canunes, castel, clerkes, cundut, dahet, faucun, gelus, ginne, grante, grucching, i-peint, maister, manteine, merci, mester, munekes, pais, plaid, plaidi, plaiding, plaites, pope, povre, purs, rente, riche, schirme, sot, sothede, spus-bruche, spusing, sputing, weorre.

(5) "Jesus Poems," in "An O.E. Miscellany," about 1244 (MS. written after 1250): "

Amatiste, amur, askape, barun, beril, bitrayen, buffet, calcydone, calche, castel, cendal, cheysil, clergie, crisopace, croyz, crune, crysmechild, culur, curteys, dute, duzeper, drywories, feste, flum, flur, fyngayhol, grace, hardy, iaspe, kustume, laced, lecherye, lectorie, mantel, matines, maystres, mercy, meyné, munt, nappes, ofseruie, palefray, palle, persones, playdurs, pouernesse, poure, prechen, prechi, preyynge, prynce, prysune, quiten, rencyan, reyne, robe, russet, saphir, sardone, scarlat, sepulchre, sermun, sermonye, seruy, skarlet, smaragde, spis, spusinge, symonye, trayen, temple, tupace, turn, turnen, warantye, weorreb.

VII. "Havelok the Dane," ed. Skeat, for E.E.T. Society, about 1280:—

Allas, anker, arke, asayleden, aunlaz, auter, ayse, baret, barnage, baroun, barre, beneysun, beste, blame, burgeys, caliz, castel, catel, cauenard, cerges, chanounes, charbucle, chartre, chaste, chaumpioun, chinche, closede, conestable, conseyl, corporaus, corune, coruning couere, cri, croiz, curt, curteys, curteysye, datheit, desherite, douted dubbe, eritage, eyr, feble, feblelike, felonnye, fey, feyth, flaung flote, flour, frusshe, fyn, gent, gisarm, gleiues, glotus, graunted grith-sergeans, gronge, gruched, hasard, hermites, ioie, ioupe, iustil kopes, large, laumprei, leoun, leteres, luue-drurye, malisun, maugi mayster, mele, menie, merci, messe-bok, messe-gere, noblelik nunnes, palefrey, panier, pappes, parlement, parted, pastees, pateyn,

payed, per, pleinte, plente, poke, pouere, poure, pourelike, prey, preyse, priorie, pyment, ribbe, riche, robberes, romanz, rose, roser, runci, saue, sauteres, sayse, segges, seinte, sergaunz, serges, simenels, sire, spuse, spusen, spusing, storie, sturgiun, supe, syre, tabour, taleuaces, tendre, trayson, traytour, trechery, tresoun, trone, trusse, tumberel, turbut, turnen, uoyz, utrage, veneysun, waiten, warant, wastels,

# VIII. (1) "King Horn," ed. Lumby, for E.E.T. Society, before 1300:—

Admiral, ankere, arive, assaille, auenture, banere, baronage, bataille, bigiled, bitraie, blame, castel, chaere, chapeles, chaunge, colur, compaynye, cosin, couerture, crois, crune, curt, damesele, deole, denie, devise, disse, dubbing, enemis, enuye, flur, folye, galeie, galun, gegours, gestes, ginne, glotun, grace, graunt, grauel, heritage, homage, i-armed, lace, maister, manere, messaventure, mestere, palais, palmere, passage, payn, paynyme, pilegryn, place, posse, preie, prime, prone, prowesse, pure, rengne, rente, roche, rose, scaped, sclavyne, scrippe, serie, serue, seruise, spuse, spusen, squier, ture, turnen.

## (2) "Assumpcioun," in the volume containing "King Horn:"-

Amendy, assompcion, belamy, bi-traie, chauntre, chere, frut, gile, lescoun, meigné, messager, mester, palm, parchement, poure, serui, seruise, space, temple.

## (3) "Florice and Blauncheflur," in "King Horn":

Accupement, admiral, angussus, aquite, areisun, art, bacin, barbecan, barnage, baron, belamy, burgeis, capun, certes, charbucle, chaumberlein, chaumbre, chaunge, chauntement, cité, cler, compaygne, coniureson, coveitus, crien, cristal, culvert, cunsail, curtais, date, demure, departe, deshonur, druerie, dubbede, dute, engin, entermeten, envius, esceker, felonie, felun, fin (end), flur, ginne, ginnur, grace, granti, gref, hardy, honoure, ioie, iugements, kernel, lampe, lanterne, largeliche, mainé, marbelston, marchaundice, marchaunt, mariner, mascun (mason), meniuier, merci, onur, oresun, pal, palais, pane, parage, parais, par amur, part, parte, parting, passiun, peire, piler, pirate, pité, place, plenere, porter, preie, pris, prison, quite, resun, riche, saphir, schauntillun, semblaunt, seriauns, sire, sopere, spie, spusen, squire, stage, suffre, tende, torche, towaille, tur, tures.

## IX. "Kyng Alexaunder," ed. Weber, before 1300:-

Abasched, abatest, accord[e], acord, acorde, acordement, acoste, acount, acoysyng, adaunt, afatement, afaunce, afeormed, aferis, affye, afforced, agref, aire (heir), aketoun, alblastrere, alblastre, allene, almatour, alouris, amayed, amblant, amende, amendement, amendyng, ameye, amiraylis, amiture, amonestement, amour (lover), amye (friend),

ancres, angwych, anured, anoye, antur, apaied, apere, aperte, aperteliche, appertenaunce, aprise, aquyted, arayed, archeris, areson, aresoned, arived, arme, armed, armes, armoure, arnement, ars, arsoun, ars-table, art, asaied, asawt, asay, aschape, asemblaye, asoyne, asperaunt, aspieth, aspye, aspyed, assaile, assailed, assailynge, assent, assentyn, assise, assoyne, asteynte (?), astore, astrangled, astromyen, astronomye, asyghe (=essay), atire, auntred, autorité, autour, avaunce, avauncement, avenaunt, aventure, avetrol, aveysé, aviroun, avowe, bachelrye, bac[h]elur, bailifs, baner, baneret, barbicans, barell, barge, baronage, baroun, barounye, basnet, basyn, bataile, batalye, batayling, baudekyn, baudry, bawmed, bay, beef, berfreys, besans, best, blamed, boceleris, bocher, bonere, borel, botemey, botileir, boyle, braunche, bray, broches, bugle, burgeys, busard, by-cache, by-lace, cage, camailes, canel, carayne, caries (carats), carole, carolyng, cas, castel, cayvars, ceptres, certes, certeyn, chain, chaisel, chalenge, champion, charbokel, chargen, charmed, charmyng, charrey, chas, chast, chast[e], chaumbre, chaumpe, chaunce, chaunge, chaunse, chaunselere, cl ere, chesoun, chesse, chevalry, cheventyn, cheyn, cheyne, chivalrie, cité, cler, clergie, cleir, clerk, conioun, cokedrill, colour, coloure, comaundement, comburment, comforte, compaignye, comune, comyn, conceyve, conjureson, conjuryng, conqueren, conseillynge, consent, constable, contek, continuunce, contray, corage, coragous, corant, corner, coroune, corour, cors, corsour, cortesy, cortined, cozynes, counsail, counseiler, countryng, coup, cours, court, covenant, covertour, to coverye, coward, coyntise, creature, crisolites, cristal, croper, croune, crouned, croupe, cry, crye, cure, curteis, dalye, damage, dame, damosel, dauncen, daunte, defaute, defence, defende, defoille, defyeaunce, defyghe, delfyns delices, deliciouse, delis, delit, delited, delivered, demayn, demere, demorrance, deol, departed, depose, deray, dereyne, descharged, desert, deshonour, desirous, destenyng, destrere, destruye, desyre, dette, devyse, deynté, Dieu mercy, discoverte, discipline, discrye, discryue, disgysed, dismayng, dispence, dispised, dispit, dispoyled, disray, disseyte, distinctioun, distresse, divers, doloure, dosayn, dosseyn, doutaunce, doute, dragman (=interpreter), dragon, dragonet, to dressel, drewery, dromedaries, dromoun, dubbed, dubbyng, duk, dure, dysours, emeraundis, emperour, empire, embrace, encence, encheson, encombrement, encresed, enemye, engyn, engyneful, enherit, enuesure, entaile, entent, entermetyd, entraile, entreden, entree, envenymen, ermine, eschape, ese, estellacioun, estre, evorye, fable, face, faile, fairye, fame, faucon, favasour, favour, feste, feuté, feynt, feyntise, ficicion, firmament, flank, flour, flourith, flum, foisoun, folie, fool, forest, forkis, fortresses, fourmed, fronst, front, frusche, fruyt, furchur, furred, fygeres, fync, gage, galopith, gangle (jangle), gardynes, gargaze, garnement, garsounes, gaumbisoun, gay, geaunt, gent, gentil, gentiliche, gentil-men, geste, gestnyng, gileful, gilofre, glorious glotoun, gonfanoun, gonnes, gorgen, gorger, governor, graunt, graunti greuance, greven, gybet, gyle, gylyng, gynger, gynne, gyoures, gysari gyse, hardinesse, hardy, to hardye, harlot, harnesche, harneys, h haumudeys, haunteth, hawberk, herber, herbes, heygh-maister,

homage, honest, honeste, honour, honouren, hostel, hurdices, iniquité, ire, irrous, issue, jacynkte, jangelours, jay, jeste, jogolere, jolif, jolisse, jolisliche, joly, joye, joyned, jugge, juggement, juster, justes, justices, justyng, juwel, laboryng, labour, lake, langage, largenesse, laroun, latimer, laumpe, launce, launceynge, lecherie, lechour, leisere, leopardes, lessoun, lettres, lettrure, lewté, licoris, lioun, liversoon, losynger, lumbars, lynage, lyvereyng, mace, madame, maigné, maister, maisterlyng, maistrie, male-aperte, malese, malicious, maltalent, manace, manas, maner, mangenils, mantel, marchal, marchaunt, margarites, maried, mariners, market, marreys, mason, matere, matynges, maugre, mayntenid, medecyne, medlay, melodye, memorie, menage, mendyng, menevere, mercye, merveille, merveillouse, merveilynges, mesanter, meschaunce, meschef, message, messanger, messangers, mester, mesureable, metal, meyntenaunt, molest, monoceros, mont, monteth, morter, motoun, mounde, mountaunce, mountayne, muray, muyle, myne, mynoris, mynstral, nacioun, nature, neyce, noble, nobleye, nobleys (=noblesse), noise, nombre, norice, norische, nortoure, notemugge, nygremauncye, odour, olifaunt, on-cas, ordeyne, orfreys, orgulous, ost, ostage, outrage, page, pais, paleis, palfray, palmer, panter, parage, paramours, pardé, parforce, parlement, pars, part, party, pas, passed, pasture, pautener, pavyloun, paye, pays, peces, pecock, pelles, penaunce, pencil, peolure, people, peopur, peoren (=peers), perage (=parage), perce, perceyved, perch, perdos, pere, perile, perlement, pers, person, pertyng (=parting), peryl, peyn, pilgrimage, piropes, pité, place, planete, plate, playn, plenté, pleyne, pleynt, pocions, poisond, pomon, popet, poraile, pore, posterne, poudré, povert, power, praised, praisyng, pray (=prey), pray, preche, preciouse, preoire, preost (=pressed), preove, pres, present, presented, prest, pris, prison, priveté, proferid, propre, prowesse, prynce, pryvé, pryveliche, purchacyng, purchas, pure, purs, purtreyed, purveyed, puyr, pyment, pypyn (=pipe), pyrates, pyrie (jewels), quarel, quarelis, queyntaunce, queyntise, qweynte, quybibe, quystron, quyt, rage, rasour, raundoun, raunsoun, rebel, refuse, regioun, reherce, reirwarde, reisyn, rekowered, remenaunt, remuwing, renoun, rente, repentand, repentyng, reremayn, resset, return, reverence, reveryng, revne, to reygne, ribaud, ribaudye, riche, richely, richesse, rinoceros, robbedyn, robbery, robbour, robe, rocher, roite (=rute), romaunce, round, route, rybaud, ryvage, sacrefying, saffer, sailyng (=asailyng), sakred, salueth, salved, sacrefyse. samyt, saumoun, saun dotaunce, saun fable, saun faile, savage, saven, scape, scarceliche, scarseté, sclaundre, scorpion, scoumfyt, scourge, sedewale, segedyn, seignorie, seignour, semblabel, semblaunt, senas (=senates), sendel, sengle, sergant, servage, seysouns, siclatoun, signefieth, signifiaunce, signifyng, sire, siwen, skarlet, skyrme, skyrmyng, slyces, smaragdes, socour, socoure, sodeynliche, soffraunce, soffred, soiournyng, sojorneth, sojour, soket, solace, solaced, somer, somound, sones, sopere, sorcerye, soudan, soun, sourmouncie, speciale, spices, spies, spirit, spoil, spoile, spouse, spoused, spye, stable, stage, stamped, standard, storie, straunge, strayte,

sumpteris, suspecioun, sustenaunce, swte (=sute), swyer, sygaldryc, syment, sytolyng, tabard, table, talant, tapnage, tastyng, tayl, tempestes, temple, tempreth, tence, tenour, tent, terrene, teste (head), to-lonst, torellis, touched, tour, tourment, trace, traitour, trappe, trappen, travaile, traye, traytory, treble, treson, tresorere, tresour, trespas, tressen, tronchon, trouage, trouble, trumpes, trumpours, trumpyng, trussed, tryacle, turnay, turneth, turneiyng, tyffen, tyger, tymbres, tyranné, unces, undur-chamburleyn, un-honest, un-plye, usage, unycornes, valour, vawte, velasour, vengaunce, venyme, venysoun, verger, verreyment, vestement, vertuous, veyne, victorie, vigor, virgyn, visage, vitailes, voidud, voys, vygour, vylanye, vysite, warante, warentmentis, warysom, weilyng, weorre, weorriour, y-chaste, y-foiled, yle, ymage, ymages, ymagour, ynde, y-pavylounded, ypotame.

# X. A. "Lives of Saints," &c., in "Early English Poems," ed. Furnivall, for Philological Society, about 1295:—

- (1) St. Dunstan.—Abbei, abbey, amende, anteyn, aperteliche, assoillede, blamie, celle, consailler, contrai, crede, crouning, deynté, doute, enuye, folliche, freres, grace, grauntede, ioye, joyfulle, kirileyson, lecherie, maistres, manere, masse, miracle, monek, norischi, ordeynour, ordre, oreisouns, persones, persoun, place, poer, pose, poure, preveie, priveï, priveité, rente, servede, servie, sire, sodeynliche, sojournede, solaz, specials, treoflinge, trespas, uncle.
- (2) An Oxford Student.—Clere, cors, iserved, madame, onourede, onoury, penance, privé, priveiliche, repentant, scole, servise.
- (3) The Jews and the Cross.—Forme, priveité, sacring, trecherie, vylté.
- (4) St. Swithin.—Amendede, assignede, bobaunce, chiefe, confessour, consail, devocioun, doutest, heir, honer, i-greved, iolyf, ioyous, i-revested, masoun, noble, norissie, oreisouns, portoure, poynt, processioun, ribaudie, seint, signe, squiers, sumnede, turnde.
- (5) St. Kenelm.—Abbai, accountes, ambesat, awaitede, bi-gyled, chapel, conteckede, cumpaignye, deol, departed, diverse, enuye, felonye, feste, folie, for-travailed, frut, (atte)fyne, heritage, honury, iugement, larder, lettres, martirs, m.ssager, noblesse, nobliche, norice, outrage, pees, poisoun, principales, priveité, purveide, relike, sauf, sautere, sauvoure, seisi, suy, tendre, traitour, travaillest, trecherie, valleye, vers, wardeyn, y-martred.
- (6) St. James.—Agyled, beau, bi-gyli, bi-traye, cas, dulfullic doutede, i-sued, justise, membre, merci, pelegrim, preisi, queyntil resoun.

- (7) St. Christopher.—Angusse, arblestes, beau sire, clere, consortie, cowardz, cristnede, croice, croiz, delyvri, feble, firce, hermyte (heremyte, ermyte), i-passed, iugelour, melodie, mester, piler, poer, prechi, preching, prisoun, roste, siege, tourment, tourne, virtu, y-armed.
- (8) The 11,000 Virgins.—Abbesse, aryve, baptize, certeyn, chast, chere, covent, creatoure, cride, cristenie, damaisele, deol, destruye, dignete, enclynede, fame, gent(r)ise, grante, heir, honoure, martyrs, message, noblei, nonnerie, paye, preisi, priveité, queynte, servie, spouse, suede, suffrie, sustenance, tresches, tumbe, virgines.
- (9) St. Edmund the Confessor.—Abbod, acordi, alosed, amende, amendement, ancestres, anuy, archebischop, arsmetrike, avanced, baners, best, canoun, catel, cerclen, certes, chamberlayn, chanceler, chapitre, chaste, chasteté, clergie, comun, confessour, confort, consailli, contek, contynuelliche, cours, croserie, custume, defaute, delyvre, deolfulliche, desire, desputede, desputie, desturbie, disciple, discipline, divinité, ellectioun, ensample, ensente, entende, envie, faillen, feble, febliche, figours, flour, franchyse, fyne (end), grace, grandsire, grevede, grevy, hauberk, ioyful, i-soilled, i-sustened, i-tourmentede, largeliche, legat, lessoun, lettres, magesté, maistrie, mariage, merci, meseise, messager, minstre, nonnes, numbre, obedience, ordre, oreisoun, ostesse, pamerie, paume, payest, persones, pité, pitousliche, plener, parveide, pouere, prechen, prechour, prioresse, procuracies, profound, pryveiliche, queor, quitoure, religioun, rounde, roveisouns, savour, scole, scolers, seculer, seint, semblant, sentence, signe, soiourny, spense, spoushode, stabliche, stat, studie, symonye, trinité, tresourer, tuochi, université, usede, visciun, werrie, ymage.
- (10) St. Edmund the King.—Bisigede, corteys, hardie, honoury, noble, pelrynage, pitousliche, quoynte, robbede, scourgen, suen, tourmentours.
- (11) St. Katherine.—Apeired, artz, blame, blandisinge, conforti, desputi, emperesse, emperour, emparice, falliest, gent, gentrise, glorie, gywise, i-granti, iourneyes, i-scourged, iugement, justice, maister, maistrie, mossel-mele, nobliche, oylle, paleys, philosophe, plaidi, preise, preovie, preyere, prisoun, privei, prophete, queyntise, rasours, resoun, sacrifyse, scourges, sustenie, temple, tourment, traitour, turmente, turne, veyne.
- (12) St. Andrew.—Doutic, folle, i-tournd, preciouses, pur, scourgi, tourmentour.
- (13) Seinte Lucie.—Amende, aprochi, bordel, comun, defouled, enchantementz, enchantours, fisciciens, grevous, i-granted, i-spend, lechour, mencisoun, norice, presse, que(y)nteliche, sauter, spere, tendre, tuochede, tuochinge.
  - (14) St. Edward. Aventoures, blame, pore.

- (15) Judas Iscariot.—Anuyed, awaitede, barayl, baret, bi-cas, heire, hurlede, i-chasted, keoverie, maugre, norischie, oignement, peren (pears), privité, purs-berer, repentant, susteynie.
- (16) Pilate.—Acorded, accountie, amaistrede, ascapede, assentede, aventoure, baillie, bi-trayed, chastel, crede, curteisie, defaute, destruyde, dulfol, duri, enquerede, enqueste, face, faillede, felonie, forme, gailer, gentrice, gyle, hostage, iuggede, keverchief, norisschi, passi, peer, queyntere, repentede, roche, spousbreche, swaged, tempest, trecherie, tresour, truage, yle.
- (17) The Pit of Hell (in "Fragments of Popular Science," ed. Wright).—Angusse, bal, balle, candle, change, cler, cours, crestal, debonere, debrusede, departi, diverse, eir (air), elementz, entempri, firmament, forme, frut, (atte) fyne, glotouns, hardi, i-closed, lecherie, maner, mayster, norisschinge, noyse, occian (ocean), planete, post, pur, purveide, qualité, resoun, rounde, semblant, signes, tempest, temprieth, turment, turneth, veynes.

# X. B. "pe Holy Rode" (in "Legends of the Holy Rood"), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society:—

Ahansed, amounty, anuyd, baptizen, bast (bastard), batail, baundone, carpenters, caudron, cercle, chere, cok, companye, comun, confermy, conseil, contreie, cristeny, croys, deboner, debrusede, dedeyned, defaute, defoulede, delit, desirede, destrued, doute, emperour, enqueri, envie, failede, feble, feste, floures, fourme, frut, fyn, grace, gred-ire, gynne, hasteliche, honouri, honur, ioie, lecherie, lettres, maister, maner, mark, melodie, noble, nobleie, offring, oile, paie, parais, partie, pascion, paynym, penaunce, place, power, prechede, presious, price, prison, procession, prophete, queyntie, rosti, sauter, save, sege, sepulcre, sertes, servy, signe, siwy, somounce, stat, temple, tormentynge, treson, trinyté, trone, turne, valeie, vertu.

# XI. "Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle," cd. Hearne, about 1295:—

Abaty, abbei, abyt, acente, acord, acordy, acoyntede, acused, adauntede, afayty, age, aliance, alied, almesse, alur, ambes-as, amendement, amendy, amyrayl, anauntre, anguysse, anguyssous, anhansy, antres, anyed, apayed, apert, apertelyche, apeynede, apoysony, arayed, arblaste, archers, archetemples, arivi, arme, armure, asaile, asaut, asayed, ascapede, asise, asoyly, aspie, assumption, assygned, astoned, astore, attired, atyled, atyr, auncetres, aunte, avanced, avancement, avys, avysyon, awatede, bacheler, bachelerie, bailif banerets, baptize, barons, baronye, bast (= bastardy), bastard, batter, bachelerye, branches, broche, bulle, by-closi, by-sege, by-turne, cab cacchynge, cacheth, calangy, calis, cancrefrete, canons, cardinal

carole, caroyne, cartre, cas, castel, cathedral, cell, certeyn, chaere, chamberlein, change, chantement, chapele, charge, chartre, chase, chast, chastare, chasty, chateus, chaumbre, chaunce, chaunceler, chef, chekere, cheson, chéventeyn, choys, cirurgian, citacion, cité, clergé, clos, closi, coler, colour, comforty, commune, company, compas, y-compaced, concentede, concubine, condut, y-confermed, conferment, confermyng, conquery, conseil (=council), conseleres, conseyly, constable, conteini, contek, conteked, contenance. contesse, contré, cope, corageus, cors, cortevs, cortevsie, cosvn, couetyse, court, covenaunt, covent, coveyteth, creysede, creyserye, crie, crounement, crouny, crowne, croys, cruel, custome, damesel, daungere, debonere, debrusede, dedeyn, defaut, defendi, defensables, defense, defoule, delaye, delivery, delyt, demande, demayde, demembered, deol, deolful, departe, descord, descrivyng, deserite, deserte, desordeini, despepled, despisest, despit, despoylede, destance, destourbaunce, destourbede, destresse, destruye, desyre, desyry, devocyan, digne, diner, diverse, dosils, dossepers, doute, dragon, druery, dure, durynde, egre, enhaunce, eir, emperesse, emperie, emperour, emprisonede, enchantement, enchanter, enchantery, encheson, enlegeance, enresonede, ensample, ensenten, entente, entisede, entre, entredit, envye, ercedekne, eritage, ermyne, ermytes, ese, esé, evangelist, faile (subst. and verb), false, fame, feble, feblede, feblesse, febliche, felon, felonye, fers, feste, fey, feynede, feyntyse, ficicianes, firmament, fol, fol-hardy, follarge, folye, forest, forester, forme, for be cas (because), foundement, franchise, freres, frount, fruyt, fysik, (atte) fyn, fynede, garyson, geant, general, gent, gentrise, gentyl, gleyve, glose glosyng, glotonye, gout, governy, grace, graunt, graunti, grevede, gyle, gyn, gynne, gywel, hardi, hardynesse, hardyssy, hasarderye, hastiliche, hastines, hastyf, hauberk, haunttede, hautinesse, holer, homage, honour, honoury, improued, incarnacion, joustes, joye, joyful, joyned, jugged, juggement, justizes, keverede, keverynge, lampreye, lance, langage, large, largelyche, largesse, lecheri, lechour, legat, letre, leveres, los, lyge, lyon, mace, madame, maister, maistry, mandement, maner, mangenel, mantel, marbreston, marchandise, mareshal, mariage, martri, masse, maynage, medycine, menstrales, merci, meschance, meseyse, messager, mesures, metel, meyné, monteynes, morter, mossel, mynstre, myracle, mysauntre, mysaventure, myscheving, neueu, noble, noblei, nobliche, nonnery, norys, norysynge, noumbre, novse, obligi, occean, offre, offrynge, of-scapie, of-served, mage, ordeinour, ordeyne, orysons, ost, ostage, y-osted, outrage, paide, s, palefrey, paleys, parkes, parlemente, part, partede, partye, lyner, pas, passion, passy, patriarc, patron, pavelon, paviment, paynen, payns (pagans), pece, pece-mele, penance, perauntre, pere, peryl, perysy, philosophie, pitos, pitosliche, place, nge, planetes, playdinge, playnede, playnte, plente, plenteus, orchacy, porpos, porter, portes, porveance, porveyede, postptage, poudre, poueral, pouere, poverté, power, poynte, breche, prechoures, prechynge, prelat, presant, prest, preve, prince, principal, prioryes, prise, prison, privé, priveliche,

priveté, processyon, procurede, prophecie, prowes, prys, pur, purliche, pur mesel, pyté, quarel, quoynte, quoynteliche, quoyntise, quyt, toraced, rage, raunsom, rebel, recet, recetted, regnede, relesi, relygion, relykes, remuede, renable, rentes, repentant, restorede, resun, reverence, reverye, revested, richesse, robbery, robbour, robby, roche, romance, rose, rostede, rounde, route, ryveres, sacri, sacrifise, sacring, sauf, sauflyche, saut, sawve, say, scapye, scarseliche, scarlet, scaubert, sclaundre, scourged, secund, sege, seizede, semblant, semble, senatour, sentence, servage, serve, servise, seynorie, sinkpors, sire, siwe, siwte, socour, sodeinliche, soffry, solaci, solas, somenie, sosteini, souple. sousprior, sovereyn, specialliche, spence, sposhed, spouse, spousebruche, spousy, spousyng, spycery, spyte, squiers, stable, stabliche, stat, store, strange, stret, streytlyche, suspended, sustynance, sygne, symple, tabernacle, tables, targe, taverne, taylor, tempest, temple, temprede, tendre, terme, toret, torment, tornemens, tour, towchyng, transmigracion, trauayl, traytor, treche, trecherus, treson, tresorye, tresour, trespas, tricherie, trone, trosse, truage, turnede, tyrant, un-armed, uncle, un-deserved, un-maried, un-stable, vacauns, valei, vantward, vassayl, veage, veneson, vengeance, venymed, verdyt, vertu, veyn, vilenye, viniterie, voweson, vyzyon, wardeyn, wareson, warnesture. warvson, werrours, worrede, wympel, yle, ymage,

## XII. Harl MS. 2253.

- (1) Proverbs of Hendyng, 1272-1307 (in "Specimens of Early English").—Fule, gyleth, male, servys, sot, tempred, warysoun.
- (2) Lyric Poetry (ed. Wright, for Percy Society).—Ache, alumere, anys, asoyle, baner, baundoun, bayly, bealté, beryl, bis, blame, bounte, bref, broche, canel, caynard, cely doyne, champioun, charbocle, charité, chaunge, chere, cler, cofre, columbine, compagnie, comyn, coral, counsail, counseileth, court, coveytise, coynte, crie, crone, croune, dempned, diamaunde, doute, duel (dole), emeraude, encenz, engyn, eyse, face, false, faucoun, feble, feynt, flour, folies, forke, fourme, frere, frount, fyn, fyne, gay, gentil, gernet, glotonie, goute, grace, graciouse, graunte, grein, gromyl, gyle, gylofre, gyngyvre, honoures, jasper, jay, joie, jolyf, jolyfié, joyeth, largesse, latymer, launterne, lavendere, lealté, lecherie, licoris, lilie, lilye-white, lykerusere, maister, maistry, mandeth (mendeth), margarite, medicyn, merci, mondrake, notes, onycle, palefrey, papejai, par, paramours, parais, parvenke, passeth, pees, peyne, piete, pleyntes, poer, poure, precious, preide, preie, presente, primerols, pris, quibibe, resoun, reynes, richesse, romaunz, rose, ruby, saphyr, sauge, saveth, scourges, sede wale, serven, servyng, siwed, soffre, solas, solsicle, soutes, sotel, soteleth, spices, sucre, tortle, tour, treacle, tresor, tressour, tricherte, trichour, trone, trous, vilore, virgyne, "wayte glede" (watch ember

#### APPENDIX III.

#### SPECIMENS.

The Parable of the Sower.

(Mark iv. 3-8).

#### COTHIC.

3. Hauseib! sai urrann sa saiands du saian fraiwa seinamma.

4. jah warb mibbanei saiso, sum raihtis gadraus faur wig, jah qemun fuglos jah fretun bata.

5. anparup pan gadraus ana stainahamma, parei ni habaida airpa managa, jah suns urrann, in pizei ni habaida diupaizos airpos;

6. at sunnin þan urrinnandin ufbrann, jah unte ni habaida waurtins, gabaursnoda.

7. jah sum gadraus in þaurnuns, jah ufarstigun þai þaurnjus jah

afhwapidedun jata, jah akran ni gaf.

8. jah sum gadraus in airja goda, jah gaf akran urrinnando jah

#### West-Saxon.

3. Gehýrať;

Ut éode se sædere his sæd tó sawenne.

wahsjando, jah bar ain. l. jah ain. j. jah ain. r.

- 4. 7 bá hé séw sum féoll wið þonc weg. 7 fugelas cómon 7 hit
- 5. Sum féoll ofer stán-scyligean þár hit næfde mycele eorðan ¬ sóna p éode, ¬ forþam hit næfde eorþan þiccnesse,

6. på hit up éode, séo sunne hit forswælde, 7 hit forscranc, forpam

it wyrtruman næfde.

- sum féoll on pornas. þa stigon ða þornas -- forþrysmodon þæt, -- feestm ne bær.
  - f ¬ sum féoll on gód land ¬ hit sealde upp stígende ¬ wexende '

    μm ¬ án bróhte þrítig fealdne, sum syxtig fealdne, sum hund

#### EARLY NORTHUMBRIAN.

- 3. Hérað heono éode de sáwende t sédere tó sáwenne Audite ecce exiit seminans ad seminandum.
- 4. ¬ miððý geséau óðer t sum féoll ymb ðá strét ¬ cwómon et dum seminat aliud cecidit circa viam et venerunt flégendo ¬ frétton t éton ðæt. volucres et comederunt illud.
- 5. sum éc féoll ofer stænes ðér ne hæfde corðu habuit aliud vero cecidit super petrosa ubi non terram hræðe upp-iornende wæs tarisen wæs forðon michel † menig multam et statim exortum est quoniam næfde héanisse corbes.

non habebat altitudinem terrae.

- 6. ¬ ðá arisen wæs t ðá upp-éode sunna ge-drúgade t forbernde et quando exortus est sol exestuavit forðon næfde wyrtruma gedrúgade. eo quod non haberet radicem exaruit.
- 7. ¬ sum féoll in Sornum ¬ astigon l'upp-éodun Sornas ¬ ct aliud cecidit in spinis et ascenderunt spinae et underdulfon þæt ¬ wæstm ne salde. suffocaverunt illud et fructum non dedit.
- 8. ¬ óðer féoll on eorðu gódum ¬ salde wæstm stígende et aliud cecidit in terram bonam et dabat fructum ascendentem ¬ wæxende ¬ tó-bróhte énne † án ðrittig ¬ án sexdig ¬ et crescentem et adferebat unum triginta et unum sexaginta et án hundrað. unum centum.

## Psalm xiv. (xv).

## (Vespasian Psalter. II. Sweet, The Oldest English Texts, p. 201.)

1. Dryhten, hwelc eardað in selegescote ðínum, oððe hwelc Domine quis habitabit in tabernaculo tuo aut quis geresteð in munte ðém hálgan ðínum? requiescit in monte sancto tuo?

2, 3. Se ingéð bútan womme ¬ wirceð rehtwísnisse.
Qui ingreditur sine macula et operatur justitiam.
spriceð sóðfestnisse in heortan his ¬ nis fácæn in tungar loquitur veritatem in corde suo et non egit dolum in lingu.
Ne, he dyde ðrém néstan his yfel ¬ edwit ne to Nec fecit proximo suo malum et opprobrium non act wið ðrám néstan his.
adversus proximum suum.

4. To nówihte gelæded bið in gesihðe his se awergda; ondrédende Ad nihilum deductus est in conspectu ejus malignus; timentes sóðlice dryhten gemiclað. Se swereð ðám néstan his ¬ ne autem Dominum magnificat. Qui jurat proximo suo et no beswác hine. decepit eum.

5. Se feh his ne salde tó westemscette ¬ gese ofer Qui pecuniam suam non dedit ad usuram et munera super one unsceoscullan ne onsens. Se dóen dás ne bið he onstyred innocentem non accepit. Qui facit haec non commovebitur in écnisse. in acternum.

### (Eadwine's Canterbury Psalter, ed. Harsley, Early English Text Society.)

- 1. Drihten, wyle eærdæþ on þinre gesele t eardungstowe t teld oþðæ wyle resteþ on þinre hælgæn dune t munte?
  - 2. Se ingeb butæn wemme wyrch rihtwisnesse.
- 3. Se þe spryceþ soþfestnesse on his heortan n ne deþ inwyd t facn on his tungæn ne dyde his niextæn yfel n edwit t hosp ne anfeng ongean his niextæn.

4. To næhte biþ geled on his gesihþe se æwyrgede, soðlice þæ þe drihten ondredæþ he hig gemuclað. Se þe sweræþ his niextæn.

5. ¬ hiene ne beswick, ¬ his fioh ne seleh to westme odd to hýre ¬ his læc ne onfehh ofer hone unscyldygen. Se he hæst deh ne bih he astyred t gedrefed on ecnesse.

# (Northumbrian Psalter, published by the Surtees Society. Specimen of Early English, Part II, p. 24. Early 14th century.)

I. Lauerd, in bi telde wha sal wone?
In bi hali hille or wha reste mone?

Whilke pat incomes wemles, And ai wirkes rightwiseness;

 þat spekes sothnes in hert his, And noght dide swikeldome in tung his, Ne dide to his neghburgh iuel ne gram; Ne ogaines his neghburgh vpbraiding nam.

4. To noght es lede lither in his sight;
And dredant Lauerd he glades right.
He pat to his neghburgh sweres,
And noght biswikes him ne deres.
Ne his siluer til okir noght es giuand;
Ne giftes toke ouer underand,
pat does pese night and dai,
Noght sal he be stired in ai.

(The Earliest Complete English Prose Psalter, ed. Bülbring. Early English Text Society.)

- 1. Lord, who shal wonen in by tabernacle, oper who shal resten in byn holy hill?
  - 2. He bat entreb wybouten wemm and wyrcheb ryztfulnesse;
- 3. He pat speke so nes in hys hert, and ne dide no trecherie in his tunge; Ne did non yuel to his ne bur, ne toke no reprusynge o sayn hys ne burs.
- 4. be wicked hys brougt to nougt in hys sigt, and God glorifieb be dredand our Lord. He that swereb to hys negbur and deceiveb hym nougt;
- 5. and 3af nou3t hys tresour to oker and ne tok 3iftes up innocent; he hat dob hes hynges, ne shal nou3t he stired wyh-outen ende.

(According to the Wycliffite Version made by Nicholas de Hereford ab. A.D. 1381, and revised by John Purvey ab. A.D. 1388.).

- 1. Lord, who schal dwelle in thi tabernacle; ether who schal reste in thin hooli hil?
  - 2. He that entrith with out wem; and worchith riztfulnesse.
- 3. Which spekith treuthe in his herte; which dide not gile in his tunge. Nether dide yuel to his nei3bore; and took not schenschip azens hise nei3boris.
- 4. A wickid man is brouzt to nouzt in his sizt; but he glorifieth hem that dreden the Lord. Which swerith to his neizbore, and disseyueth not:
- 5. Which 3af not his money to vsure; and took not 3iftis on the innocent. He, that doith these thingis, schal not be moued with outen ende.



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